

THE  
HISTORY OF INDIA

FROM

THE EARLIEST PERIOD TO THE CLOSE OF  
LORD DALHOUSIE'S ADMINISTRATION.

BY

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. VOL. I.

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*January 1st 1867*

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# THE HISTORY OF INDIA.

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## CHAPTER I

### EARLY HISTORY TO THE GHUZNI INVASION

Boundaries and  
divisions of  
India.

INDIA is bounded on the north and the east by the Himalaya mountains, on the west by the Indus, and on the south by the sea. Its length from Cashmere to Cape Comorin is 1,900 miles, its breadth from Kurrachee to Sudiya, in Assam, 1,500 miles. The superficial contents are 1,287,000 miles, and the population, under British and native rule, is now estimated at 200,000,000. It is crossed from east to west by a chain of mountains called the Vindya, at the base of which flows the Nerbudda. The country to the north of this river is generally designated Hindostan, and that to the south of it the Deccan. Hindostan is composed of the basin of the Indus on one side, and of the Ganges on the other, with the great sandy desert on the west, and an elevated tract now called, from its position, Central India. The Deccan has on its northern boundary a chain of mountains running parallel with the Vindya, to the south of which stretches a table land of triangular form, terminating at Cape Comorin, with the western Ghauts, on the western coast, and the eastern Ghauts, of minor altitude, on the opposite coast. Between the Ghauts and the sea lies a narrow belt of land which runs round the whole peninsula.

*Chronology of  
the Hindoos.*

Of the ancient history or chronology of the Hindoos there are no credible memorials. The history was compiled by poets, who drew on their imagination for their facts, and the chronology was computed by astronomers, who have made the successive ages of the world to correspond with the conjunctions of the heavenly bodies. The age of the world is thus divided into four periods: the *satya yugu*, extending to 1,728,000, and the second, or *treta yugu*, to 1,296,000 years; the third, or the *dweepur yugu*, comprises 864,000 years; and the fourth, or *kulce yugu*, is predicted to last 432,000 years. A *kulpa*, or a day of Brumha, is composed of a thousand such periods, or 4,320,000,000 years. Extravagant as these calculations may appear, they are outdone by the Burmese, who affirm that the lives of the ancient inhabitants extended to a period equal to the sum of every drop of rain which falls on the surface of the globe in three years. The dates given for the first three ages must, therefore, be rejected as altogether imaginary, while the commencement of the fourth, or present age, which corresponds, to a certain degree, with the authentic eras of other nations, may be received as generally correct.

*Early history of  
the Hindoos.*

India is designated by native writers Bharut-vansa, from king Bharut, who is said to have reigned over the whole country. That he did not enjoy universal monarchy in India is certain, though he was doubtless one of the earliest and most renowned of its rulers; but this fact loses all historical value when we are told in the shasters that he reigned ten thousand years, and, on his death, was transformed into a deer. Thus do we plod our way through darkness and mystery; at every step fact is confounded with fable, and all our researches end only in conjecture. The original settlers are identified with the various tribes of Bheels, Cols, Gonds, Meenas, and Choars, still living in a state almost of nature, in the forests of the Soane, the Nerbudda, and the Muhanudda, and in the hills of Surgooja and Chota Nagpore. Their languages have no

affinity with the Sanscrit, and their religion differs from Hindooism. In those fastnesses, amidst all the revolutions which have convulsed India, they have continued to maintain unchanged, their original simplicity of habits, creed, and speech. They were apparently driven from the plains by fire h colonies of emigrants, and these were in their turn conquered by the Hindoos who brought their religion and language with them from regions beyond the Indus, and, having reduced the inhabitants to a servile condition, branded them with the name of soodras. Of the four Hindoo castes, three are designated the twice born which seem to indicate that they all belonged to the conquering race, although the term is now applied exclusively to brahmins. In the Institutes of Munoo reference is also made to cities governed by soodras, which the twice born were forbidden to enter, and the allusion evidently applies to soodra chiefs who continued to maintain their independence after the Hindoo invasion.

The Hindoos who originally crossed the Indos took possession of a small tract of land, 100 miles north west of Delhi about 65 miles by 30, which was considered the residence of gods and holy sages while the brahmins appear to have subsequently occupied the country north of the Jumna and the Ganges, stretching to the confines of north Behar. The India of the Vedas of Munoo, and the earliest writers was exclusively confined to the region north of the Nerbudda and comprised but a small portion even of that limited quarter. It was in the north that the four places of greatest sanctity were situated during the early ages though the Deccan now contains many places of distinguished merit. The north was also the seat of the solar and lunar races the scene of chivalrous adventures, and the abode of all those who are celebrated in the legends, the mythology and the philosophy of the Hindoos. Even in the polished age in which the Ramayun and the Mahabharat were composed, the south was the land of fable the dwelling of lears and monkeys and it was not till a very late period that these apes and goblins and mon-

sters were transformed into orthodox Hindoos. It must, therefore, be distinctly borne in mind that the revolutions described in the sacred books of the Hindoos belong to Hindostan, and not to the Deccan.

Some of the Pooraos describe India as having been formerly divided into ten kingdoms, of these five were situated in Hindostan,—Surus wuttee, comprising the Punjab, Ounouy embracing Delhi, Agra, and Oude, Tirhoot, from the Coosee to the Gunduk, Gour, or Bengal, with a portion of Behar, and Guzerat, which evidently included Candesh, and part of Malwa. Five are assigned to the Deccan,—Muharastru, or the Mahratta country on the western coast, and Orissa on the eastern coast, Telingana, lying between the Godavery and the Kistna, Dravira, or the Tamul country, stretching down to Cape Comorin, and Carnata on the western face of the peninsula. In correspondence with these divisions, which are comparatively modern, ten languages, of similar names, are enumerated as being current in them. Of these, the language of the five divisions of Hindostan, as well as the Mahratta and the Orissa are branches of the Sanscrit, modified by the mixture of local and foreign words, and new inflections. The Teloogoo—spoken in Telingana—as well as the Tamul and the Carnata belong, however, to a distinct family, and the only Sanscrit words found in them are those which have reference to religious observances. The brahmins, crossing the Indus, brought their own language from the west, where it was in constant use—as the ancient inscriptions in Persia testify—and diffused it through the north of India in connection with their religion. It thus became gradually mixed up with the dialects of the different provinces, which at length lost their original distinctions. The word Sanscrit signifies refined, and that language bears every indication of having received the improvements of the literati for many centuries, till it became the most exquisite medium of communication in the world.

The ten  
divisions and  
languages

The Vedus.

The worship taught in the Vedus was the earliest form of the Hindoo religion, and was introduced into Hindostan by a body of priest, who crossed the Indus either in the train of a conqueror or on a mission of proselytism, possibly 1400 years before our era. The Vedus are a collection of hymns, prayers, and precepts, composed by different authors, at different periods and were delivered down orally till the time of Vyasu, the bastard son of a fisherwoman, though, on his father's side, of royal lineage, who employed four brahmins to collect and arrange them. Their leading doctrine is the unity of God, and the various divinities, the personification of the elements, whom the devotee is required to invoke, are manifestations of the Supreme Being. The gods are mentioned, it is true, but without any pre-eminence, and never as objects of adoration, and there is no trace of the legends of Krishnu and Sivu to be found in them. In that early age, indeed, there appears to have been no images, and no visible types of worship. Though the customs and habits of the Hindoos are said to be immutable, yet, strange to say in a country which still regards the Vedus with profound veneration as the great fountain of religion, the ritual they prescribe has become so obsolete that the man who ventured to regulate his devotions by it would be considered in the light of an infidel.

Munoo.

Next in order comes the work called the "Institutes of Munoo," a code of rules and precepts, religious and secular, collected together about 900 years before our era and attributed to Munoo. It inculcates the worship of the elements, of the heavenly bodies and of inferior deities, but none of the objects of modern worship are alluded to. Brumha is mentioned more than once but the names of Vishnu and Sivu do not occur. Idols are noticed and one passage enjoins that they shall be respected but the adoration of them is discountenanced. The caste of brahmins is in this code placed on an equality with the god, and endowed with extraordinary privileges, but they were at the same time

married at an early age to Seeta, the daughter of the king of Mithila, another branch of the solar line, whose capital lay within a hundred miles of Oude. He passed many years with her in religious retirement in the forest till she was carried off by Ravunu, the king of Ceylon. Ramā assembled a large army, and having in his progress secured the assistance of the king of the monkeys, marched southward through the great forest of Dandak, which terminated on the banks of the Cavery. That forest is described as the abode of holy sages and devotees, and of apes and bears. Crossing the Cavery, Ramu entered on Junustan, or the abode of men—the continental territory of Ravunu. The expedition was crowned with success, and Ramu recovered his wife, but having inadvertently caused the death of his brother, he cast himself into a river, and as the Hindoo writers affirm, was reunited to the deity. The expedition of Ramu was the most chivalrous exploit of that age, more especially when we consider the very limited resources of the kingdom of Oude, with two independent sovereigns—one at Mithila, and the other at Benares,—within a hundred and fifty miles of his capital. He is, perhaps, the earliest of deified heroes, as his age is generally fixed at 1,200 years before our era, though on calculations by no means satisfactory.

The next great event in the heroic age of India was the great war, celebrated in another Hindoo epic, the *Mahabharat*. The main object of this poem is to commemorate the exploits of Krishnu, another deified hero who took a prominent part in the contest between the Pandos and the Kooros, two branches of the lunar line, for the possession of Hastinapore, situated in the neighbourhood of Delhi. Yudistheer, the chief of the Pandos, was resolved, it is said, to celebrate the sacrifice of the horse which implied the possession of supreme dominion. The Kooros burned with indignation at this arrogant assumption, and their chief, unable to prevent it, had recourse to artifice. He engaged Yudistheer in deep play, and led him on to stake his wife and

his kingdom, both of which were lost at one throw of the dice, and he was obliged to go into exile for twelve years. Krishna, a scion of the royal family at Muttra, on the Ganges, had already signabzed himself in a conflict with the king of Mugudu, in south<sup>c</sup> Bebar, and now, in conjunction with Buluram, accompanied Yoodistheer and his four brothers in their exile. The heroes wandered through the various provinces of India, performing notable feats of valour, and leaving some memorial of their romantic adventures in every direction. At the close of the period of exile Yoodistheer returned with his companions to the banks of the Jumna, and demanded the restoration of his kingdom. His opponent, Dooryudhun, refused his claim, and declared that he should not have as much land as could be covered by the point of a needle. There remained, therefore, no alternative but to decide the question by an appeal to arms.

The battle of Koonoo-Kshetru. In this great battle fought on the plain, where, in after time, the last decisive battle between the Hindoos and the Mahomedans took place, all the tribes in northern India were ranged on one side or the other. Chiefs from Culinga, the sea coast of Orissa, and even the Yavuns—the name generally given to the residents beyond the Indus—are said to have taken a share in it. It lasted eighteen days, and the carnage on both sides was prodigious. Dooryudhun was at length slain, and victory declared for the Pandoos, but when Yoodistheer beheld the field covered with the bodies of friends and foes all descended from a common ancestor, he became disgusted with the world and determined to withdraw from it. He entered Hastinapore and performed the funeral obsequies of his rival, after which he placed the grandson of his brother Urjoon on the throne, and retired to Dwarka, in Guzerat, in company with Krishna, who had founded a kingdom there. That hero was soon after slain “at the fountain of the lotus, by one of the wild foresters of the tribe of the Bheels. Yoodistheer proceeded through Sinde towards the north, and is supposed to have perished in

the snowy range According to the popular notion, he ascended to heaven, which was by no means incredible, as the paradise of more than one of the Hindoo deities is placed on the inaccessible peaks of the Himalayn

Influence of these two events These two events, the expedition of Ramu, and the battle of Kooroo kshetru, are the most important in the annals of the lunar and the solar race

The genus of poetry has fixed the admiration of a hundred generations on them, and supplied a rich mine of images from age to age The author of the Pamayun was Valmeeki whom the gratitude of his fellow countrymen has crowned with the wreath of immortality, by ranking him among those who never die He is supposed to have flourished in the second century before our era The same period has also been assigned to the composer of the Muhabharut Indeed, from the terms in which he describes the Yuvn Usoor, the demon or giant who engaged in combat with Krishnu, it has been conjectured that the poem must have been written after the invasion of Alexander the Great The author was Vyasu, who has been confounded, through ignorance or flattery, with the great man who collected the Vedus, which is chronologically impossible It is, moreover said, that a Vyasu appears in every age, though it is certain that no second Vyasu has since appeared among the poets of India Krishnu was deified after his death His adventures, and more particularly his flirtations with the milkmaids have rendered him the most popular of gods among an amorous people, but the sects founded on the worship of Ramu Krishnu, and other deities, are among the more modern innovations of Hindooism Bularam the brother of Krishnu, is said to have founded a kingdom, of which Palibothra, the capital became the wonder of India, though even the site of it is now matter of conjecture

The Takshak lives on.

The annals of Hindostan for several centuries after the assumed period of the great war, are involved in impenetrable obscurity, but it would appear that



about six centuries before our era, a new swarm from the teeming hive of Scythia poured across the Indus upon the plains of India. Another swarm is supposed to have moved down at the same time on the north of Europe, and settled in Scandinavia, the cradle of the English nation. This simultaneous emigration to the east and to the west, may assist in explaining that similarity of manners and customs which has been discovered on many points between the Scandinavians and the natives of India. These invaders were denominated the Takshuk, or serpent race, because the serpent was said to be their national emblem. Under their chief, Suhesnag, they probably overran the northern provinces of Hindostan, and became gradually incorporated with the tribes which had preceded them. They flourished for ten generations, and appear to have professed the Boodhist creed. Of this dynasty was Nunju, or Muhannudu, who was seated on the throne when Alexander the Great appeared on the banks of the Sutlege, and was denominated by the Grecian historians, the king of the Prasii, or of the east.

The expedition  
of Darius

The first expedition to India from the west of which we have anything like an authentic record, is that of Darius, the king of Persia, who ascended the throne of Cyrus, in the year 518 before our era, and extended his conquests from the sea of Greece to the confines of India. His admiral, Scylax, was then directed to construct a flotilla on the higher Indus, and proceed down that stream to the ocean. The report which he made of the wealth and magnificence of the country through which he passed, determined Darius to attempt the conquest of it. He crossed the Indus with a large army, and succeeded in annexing the countries bordering on that river to his great empire. The precise extent of his conquest cannot be determined, but there is every reason to conclude that his Indian province must have been of no inconsiderable magnitude, since it was estimated more valuable than any other satrapy, and is said to have furnished one-third the revenues of the Persian empire. This

tribute moreover, is said to have been paid in gold while that from the other divisions west of the Indus was delivered in silver.

Religion of  
Boodh.

It was about the period of the Persian invasion, that Goutumu gave a fixed character to the institutions of Boodhism. It has been supposed that all the fifty six tribes of the lunar race professed that creed, and Goutumu was reckoned the seventh Boodh. He was born at Kapila, but the seat of the religion was planted at Gya, in the kingdom of Magadu, or Behar, which the Chinese and Indo-Chinese nations consider the most sacred spot in the world. The Boodhists rejected the whole of the brahminical system of gods and goddesses, repudiated the doctrine of caste and adhered exclusively to the spiritual worship of the Vedas. The priesthood amongst them was not hereditary, but formed a distinct community, recruited from the secular ranks, bound to observe a vow of celibacy, and to renounce the pleasures of sense. The hereditary priesthood of the brahmins, on the contrary, admitted no accessions from the lay classes, and considered marriage as indispensable as investiture with the thread in the hope of giving birth to a son who should perform the funeral rites of his father, and secure him a seat in paradise. The death of Goutumu is fixed by the general concurrence of authorities, in the year 540 before our era.

Spread of  
Boodhism.

The religion of Boodh made prodigious progress after the death of Goutumu while the creed of the brahmins was confined to the small kingdom of Canouj. Two centuries later, in the reign of Asoka Boodhism was triumphant through Hindostan. His edicts are still to be seen inscribed on the celebrated column at Delhi, on a similar column in Guzerat and on a third in Cuttack, as well as in numerous caves and rocks. Boodhism was introduced into Ceylon about the end of the third century before our era. Shortly after, it spread through Tibet and Tartary, and was carried into China about the year 60. In Hindostan the brahmins exhibited the most rancorous hostility to their powerful rivals, and we

assembled his whole force on the banks of the Jelum. The river, swelled by the periodical rains, and at the time a mile broad, rolled impetuously between the two camps. Porus planted a long line of elephants on the margin of the stream, and presented an impenetrable line of defence to his opponent. But Alexander discovered an island in the river, about ten miles above the camp, and took advantage of a dark and tempestuous night to cross over to it with 11,000 men, who were landed on the opposite bank before dawn. The main body of the Grecian army was in the meantime drawn up as usual, facing the Indian camp, and Porus was thus led to believe that the troops who had crossed consisted only of a small brigade. But he was speedily undeceived by the rout of the force which he had sent to meet it and the death of his son who was in command and being now certain that it was Alexander himself who had crossed the river, prepared to encounter him with 4,000 horse and 30,000 foot, all of the Kshatriya tribe, warriors by birth and profession. Alexander's small army was composed of veterans, strangers to defeat, and, under such a leader, invincible. The field was obstinately contested, but nothing could withstand the charge of Alexander's cavalry. Porus continued to maintain the conflict long after the great body of his troops had deserted him, but was at length persuaded to yield. Alexander, who always honoured valour in an enemy, received him with distinguished courtesy, and not only restored his kingdom, but made considerable additions to it. Porus did not abuse this confidence, but remained ever after faithful to his generous victor.

Progress and  
return of  
Alexander

After the defeat of Porus, Alexander crossed the Chenab and the Ravee and came in contact with a body of Catharans probably Tartar immigrants who maintained an obstinate struggle which is said to have terminated only after the slaughter of 16,000, and the captivity of 70,000 of their number. On reaching the banks of the Sutlege Alexander heard of the great Gangetic kingdom of Magadu, the king of which, it was reported, could bring

30 000 cavalry, and 600,000 foot, and 9,000 elephants into the field. He determined to march down and plant his standard on the battlements of its magnificent capital, Palibothra, which was nine miles in length, and his troops received orders to prepare for crossing the river. But they were worn out with the fatigue and wounds of eight campaigns, their spirits had moreover been depressed by the deluge of rain to which they had been exposed during the monsoon, and they refused to accompany him any farther. He employed menace and flattery by turns, but nothing could shake their resolution, and he was reluctantly obliged to make the Sutlege the limit of his expedition, and return to the Indus, where he caused a large flotilla to be constructed, and sailed down the stream with all the pomp of a conqueror.

Alexander's  
projects and  
death.

The views of Alexander were gigantic and beneficial beyond those of every other ruler in ancient times. He had erected the port of Alexandria on the Mediterranean shore of Egypt, and at the end of twenty two centuries it still continues to attest the grandeur of his plans. He now resolved to establish a commercial intercourse between the coast of India the rivers of Persia and the Red Sea. For this object he built a city and harbour at the estuary of the Indus, and fitted out a large fleet, which he entrusted to his admiral, Nearchus, with orders to proceed to the mouth of the Euphrates. The voyage, though tedious, proved successful, and was justly considered one of the greatest naval achievements of the age. In the midst of these great projects Alexander caught a jungle fever in the marshes of Babylon, and died two years after his return from India, at the early age of thirty-two. He was fully bent on returning to it, and there can be little doubt that if he had succeeded in crossing the Sutlege he would have made a complete conquest of the country, and given it the benefit of European civilization. His name does not appear in any Hindoo work—a proof of the lamentable imperfection of the records which have come down to us, but his fame was widely

diffused through India by the Mohamedan conquerors, among whom he was esteemed a magnificent hero. It was carried far and wide on the ocean with the stream of their conquests, and the distant islanders of Java and Sumatra may be found singing the deeds of the mighty "Isander."

that the Greek writers chiefly derived their knowledge of India

The Mugudu  
kingdom.

After a reign of twenty-four years, Chandra goopta was succeeded by his son, Mitra goopta, with whom Seleucus renewed the treaty. The great kingdom of Mugudu maintained its pre-eminence in the valley of the Ganges, under a succession of royal families who appear to have been either soodras or boodhists, for a period of eight centuries from the year 350 before our era to 450 after it. Under their government the country is said to have attained the highest prosperity. A royal road extended from Pali-bothra to the Indus, with a small column at every stage. Another road stretched across the country to Broach, at that time the great emporium of commerce on the western

cent monuments attest the diffusion of this religion, besides the fact that the language of literature and devotion in Java is a form of the Sanscrit. In the fourth century a Chinese pilgrim recorded that the island was peopled by Hindoos, that in its ports he found vessels manned by Hindoo sailors which had sailed from the mouth of the Ganges to Ceylon, and from thence to Java, and were preparing to proceed on to China. A Hindoo government existed in Java till within the last 400 years when it was subverted by the Mahomedans. Hindooism still continues to flourish in the neighbouring island of Bali where the fourfold division of caste still survives, and widows are said still to ascend the funeral pile. Yet so signal has been the mutation of habits and opinions among the Hindoos of India, that any Hindoo who might visit the country to which his ancestors earned the institutes of his religion, and in which they exist in greater integrity than in India itself, would not be permitted to remain within the pale of the caste.

secondary gods. The fountain of fire was purified with water brought from the sacred stream of the Ganges. After the performance of expiatory rites, *each of the four gods formed an image and cast it into the fountain, and there sprung up the four men who became the founders of Rajpoot greatness.* They were sent out to combat the monsters, who were slaughtered in great numbers, but as their blood touched the ground *fresh demons arose, upon which, the four gods stopped the multiplication of the race by drinking up their blood.* The infidels thus became extinct, shouts of joy rent the skies, ambrosial showers descended from above and the gods drove about the firmament in their cars, exulting in the victory they had gained.



boodhists were constrained to relinquish were speedily occupied by the brahmins, and Vishnoo and Siva displaced Boodh.

Cave temples in India. Under the brahmins, the construction of these cave temples was extended and improved. Those which they erected at Ellora, in the Deccan, exceed in magnificence anything to be seen elsewhere. In a range of hills which extend five miles in the form of a horse shoe, we discover a range of grotto temples, two and often three stories in height. The most remarkable of them is the temple of Kailas, or the palace of Mahadeva. Here is to be found whatever is splendid in architecture, or exquisite in sculpture. The scene is crowded with staircases, bridges, chapels, columns porticoes, obelisks, and colossal statues, all chiselled out of the solid rock. The sides of these wonderful chambers are covered with figures of the Hindoo gods and goddesses, and representations from the Ramayun and the Mahabharat. The pantheon of Ellora seems to have been the citadel of Hindooism when it spread into the Deccan. The precise age of these magnificent excavations it is impossible to fix, but it must have been at some period during the ten or twelve centuries which elapsed between the subjugation of the boodhists, and the arrival of the Mahomedans, in the high and palmy state of Hindooism, when the brahmins swayed the ecclesiastical sceptre of India without a rival or an enemy.

probably visited by his fleet. He still lives in the memory of posterity, and a man of extraordinary liberality is always compared to king Kurnu. The centuries which elapsed between the decay of the Andras and the invasion of the Mahomedans are filled up by the historians with barren lists of dynasties and kings which can be turned to no account, and we turn therefore from the history of Hindostan to the annals of the Deccan.

Early history of  
the Deccan.

The early history of the Deccan is less obscure and less romantic than that of the northern division of India. All the traditions and records recognise in every province of it a period when the inhabitants did not profess the Hindoo religion. The brahminical writers describe them as mountaineers and foresters, goblins, and monsters, but there is every reason to conclude that they had reached a high degree of civilization at a very early age. Ravuru, when attacked by Ramu, was the sovereign of a powerful and civilized state, which embraced not only the island of Ceylon, but the whole of the southern division of the peninsula, and his subjects were, doubtless, far more advanced in the arts and literature than the invaders. A Tamil literature existed before the introduction of brahminism, and some of the best authors in that language were of the tribe now stigmatised as *pariahs* which incontestably proves that the *pariahs* were the aborigines of the country, and a highly cultivated people who were reduced to subjection and degraded by the triumphant brahmins. This remark applies to the group of tribes comprised in the ancient Telisgana, Dravira and Kerulu.

scene of its early power till 1736, when the last of that royal line was conquered by the nabob of Arcot. The kingdom of Chola—which some identify with Coromandel—had Cinglu, or Conjeeveram, for its capital, and retained its vigour for many centuries, and, about the eighth century, appears to have extended its authority over a considerable portion of Carnata and Telungana. But its princes were driven back and confined to their former limits about the tenth century, and maintained a feeble existence, either as independent sovereigns, or as tributaries to the great Hindoo monarchy of Vijayanpur, till the province was subdued in the middle of the seventeenth century by Shabjee, the father of Sevajee, the founder of Mahratta greatness.

Ker u and  
Te ngana.

The ancient division of Kerulu included Mala-  
bar and Carnata, which are said to have been miraculously peopled with brahmins by their champion Parusramu, the renowned destroyer of the kshetriyus. Apart from this legend, it would appear that about the second century a colony of brahmins introduced themselves and their religion into this province, which they divided into sixty-four districts and governed for a time by an ecclesiastical senate, over which a brahmin was chosen to preside every three years, but they were subsequently subjected to the Pandya kingdom. About the ninth century the country was broken into various principalities, one of the most important of which, Calcut, was under the government of the Hindoo Zamorin when the Europeans first landed in India under Vasco de Gama, in 1498. Of the history of Telungana no authentic records have been discovered but it appears that about the eleventh century the Ballal dynasty attained paramount power in this region. They dignified themselves with the title of Rajpoots of the Yadoo branch and at one period extended their authority over the whole of Carnata, Malabar, and Tehngana, but it was extinguished by the Mahomedans in

Orissa and  
Malabar.

1310. The early annals of Orissa are equally indistinct. The authentic history of the province

does not commence before the year 473 when the Keshari family obtained the throne, and held it till 1131 They were succeeded by the line of Gungu bungsu, who maintained their power till it was subverted by the Mahomedan in 1568 Of the Malhatta province there are only two facts distinctly visible in history, the existence, more than twenty centuries ago, of the great commercial mart of Tagara, so well known to the Pomans, which has been identified with Deogur, the modern Dowlatabad, and was the capital of a long line of monarchs The other event is the reign of Salivahan All that is known of that prince however, is that he was the son of a potter, that he headed a successful insurrection, dethroned the reigning family, and established a monarchy so powerful and extensive that it gave rise to an era which has survived him for eighteen centuries, and still continues current in the Deccan

of the so'ar race, from whom other Hindoo princes, before they can succeed to the throne of their fathers, must obtain the *teluk*, or sign, of royalty and investiture, is in fact the offspring of a Christian princess." Eight princes succeeded Gohri on the throne of Fdur, the last of whom was put to death by his sons while hunting, but his infant son, Bappa, was conveyed to the fortress of Bhandere, and brought up among the shepherds. His mother aroused his ambition by revealing to him the secret of his royal birth, and he immediately proceeded to the court of Chittore, together with the followers he had been able to collect, and was favourably received by the king, but the nobles took umbrage at the favour shown to an unknown youth. At this juncture a formidable force came down upon the country and the chiefs refused to furnish their feudal contingents, but Bappa offered without any hesitation to lead the national troops into the field. That enemy was the Mahomedans, who now for the first time advanced into the heart of a country destined in after times to form one of their most magnificent empires.

in paradise in the society of the black-eyed hours. It was not to be expected, that when the "Faithful," as they were termed, had conquered Africa and Spain, subverted the Persian empire, and looked on Europe as already their own, the rich provinces of India, which had been for ages the prey of every invader, should escape their not ce

First Mahomedan invasion. Within a few years after the death of Mahomed, the Caliph Omar founded Bassorah, at the estuary of the Tigris, and despatched an army into the province of Sindh. The invasion was repeated under his successors, but it was not till the days of Walid, that any successful effort was made to obtain a footing in the country. Between the years 707 and 715, he not only made an entire conquest of the province, but carried his victorious army to the banks of the Ganges. It was the generals of this caliph who crossed the Straits of Gibraltar, planted the standard of the crescent on the soil of Europe, and subdued Spain in a single campaign. So lofty was the ambition which animated the early successors of Mahomed, that their arms were triumphant at the same time on the banks of the Ebro and the Ganges, and they aspired to the conquest both of Europe and India. Three

across the Indus to<sup>c</sup> Khorasan, where he married many Mahomedan wives, and left a numerous progeny.

Renewed attack  
on Chittore

It was about this period that the Pimura family, which had ruled for many centuries at Oojein, is supposed to have lost its authority in the north of India, and other kingdoms rose on its ruins. The Turks occupied the districts around Delhi, and made that city their capital. Guzerat became independent, and was governed at first by the Chouras and then by the Solankis. The Rajpoot annalists state, that in the days of Khoman, the great grandson of Bappa, whose reign extended from 812 to 836, Chittore was again invaded by the Mahomedans under Mahmoon, the governor of Khorasan, probably the son of the celebrated Caliph, Haroun ul Rashid, the contemporary and friend of Charlemagne. The other princes in the north of India hastened to the assistance of the Rajpoots against the common enemy, and the national bard gives an animated description of the different tribes who composed the cavalry of the north on this occasion. With the aid of these allies, Khoman defeated and expelled the Musulmans, with whom he is said to have fought no fewer than twenty four engagements. For a century and a half after this period, we hear of no further Mahomedan invasion, and it cannot but appear a very notable circumstance, that while the followers of the Prophet completely subjugated Persia and Spain in two or three campaigns, the resistance which they met in their early encounters with the Hindoos was so compact and resolute, that nearly three centuries elapsed after the first invasion, before they could make any permanent impression on India.

and applied to the king of Gunoj for a supply of brahmins well versed in the Hindoo shasters and observances. That monarch, about nine centuries ago sent him five brahmins, from whom all the brahminical families in Bengal trace their descent, while the kayusts, the next in order, derive their origin from the five servants who attended the priests

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## CHAPTER II.

FROM THE DYNASTY OF GHEZNI TO THAT OF TOGHLUK,  
1009—1321



Ghuzni. On the death of his patron, a controversy arose about the succession, and Aluptugeen voted against his son who was, however, raised to the throne by the other chiefs. Aluptugeen having thus incurred his resentment, retired to his own government, and declared himself independent, and after defeating two armies sent against him, was allowed to remain unmolested. He had purchased a slave of Turkestan, of the name of Subuktugeen, who, though claiming descent from the illustrious Persim dynasty of the Sassanides had been reduced to the most abject poverty. His master, who had discovered great powers of mind in him, gradually raised him to such trust and power, that he became the first subject in the kingdom, and in 976 succeeded to the throne.

Hindoo attack  
 of Subuktugeen,  
 977

The provinces in the extreme north of India, and more particularly the Punjab had for many centuries been linked with the fortunes and policy of Cabul and Candahar which lay to the west of the Indus. Hence the establishment of a powerful Mahomedan kingdom, under a vigorous ruler, at no greater distance from the frontier of India than Ghuzni, gave no little disquietude to Jeypal the Hindoo chief of Lahore. He determined to anticipate any designs which Subuktugeen might form on India, and crossed the Indus with a large army to Lughman, at the entrance of the valley which extends from Peshawar to Cabul, where he was met by that prince. While the two armies faced each other, a violent tempest of wind, rain, and thunder arose, which is said to have terrified the superstitious soldiers of Jeypal to such a degree as to constrain him to sue for an accommodation that he might escape to his own country. The Hindoo was the aggressor, and the treaty was not granted except on the surrender of fifty elephants and the promise of a large sum of money. The envoys of Subuktugeen followed Jeypal to Lahore for payment, but on hearing that his opponent had been obliged to march towards the west to repel an invasion, he was disposed to withhold it. The brahmins, says the native historian, stood on the right of the throne, and urged

him to refuse the tribute, since there was nothing to be any longer apprehended from Ghuzni, while his Lshetriyu officers, standing on the left, reminded him of the sufferings beyond the Indus which had extorted the contribution, and, above all, of his royal word which he had pledged to the Mahomedan prince. In an evil hour, Jeypal listened to the priests, and imprisoned the envoys. Subuktugeen speedily disposed of his enemies in the west, and marched with a large army towards the Indus, breathing vengeance against the author of the insult. Jeypal, notwithstanding his perfidy, succeeded in enlisting the aid of the kings of Delhi, Ajmere, Gwaljer, and Cunoj, and advanced across the Indus, it is said, with 100,000 horse and countless infantry. The Hindoos were utterly routed, and pursued to the banks of the river. Subuktugeen found a rich plunder in their camp, and obliged all the tribes up to the Indus to submit to his authority.

Subuktugeen died in 997, and was succeeded, in the first instance, by his son Ismael, but he was superseded in a few months by his brother, the renowned Mahmood of Ghuzni, who inflicted the severest blow on the Hindoo power which it had ever experienced since its original establishment in India. From his early youth Mahmood had accompanied his father in his numerous expeditions, and thus acquired a passion and a talent for war. He succeeded to the resources of the kingdom at the age of thirty, burning with ambition to enlarge its boundaries. Having spent the first four years of his reign in consolidating his government west of the Indus, he cast his eye on the rich plains of Hindostan filled with idolaters, and invested with a romantic interest. In addition to the wealth he might acquire, the glory of extending the triumphs of Mahomedanism through new and unknown regions, possessed an irresistible charm for his mind. He began his crusade against the Hindoos in the year 1001, and conducted no fewer than twelve expeditions against the northern provinces, which, being held by various independent princes, fell an easy prey to his arms.

Mahmood's first  
and second  
invasion, 1001

He left Ghazni in August with 10,000 chosen horse, and was met at Peshawur by his father's old antagonist, Jaypal, who was totally defeated and taken prisoner, but released on the promise of paying tribute. According to the Persian historian, it was a custom or law of the Hindoos that a prince who had been twice defeated by the Mahomedan arms was considered unworthy to reign. Jaypal, therefore, resigned the throne to his son Anungpal, and closed the misfortunes of his reign by ascending the funeral pyre in regal state. Some of the chiefs subordinate to Lahore, however, refused to pay the contributions demanded of them, among whom was the raja of Bhutnere situated at the northern extremity of the Bikaner desert. The Sultan proceeded against him, the fort was taken after a siege of three days, and the prince, to avoid falling into the hands of the victor, fell upon his own sword.

His third and  
fourth expeditions,  
1005-6.

Mahmood's third expedition was undertaken to subdue Dood, whom he had left governor of Mooltan, but who, under the encouragement of Anungpal, had revolted against his master. Mooltan was invested for seven days, but an irruption of the Tartars from beyond the Oxus, constrained Mahmood to accept the submissions of the governor. Having succeeded in driving the Tartars back to their seats, he returned to India on his fourth expedition to chastise Anungpal for the revolt he had instigated, and for his repeated perfidies. That prince had sent envoys to the Hindoo monarchs in the north of Hindostan to the kings of Oojem, Calnjer, Gwalior, Cunoj, Delhi and Ajmere, who formed a confederation and assembled the largest army which had as yet taken the field against the Mahomedans. The Hindoo women are said to have melted down their gold ornaments and sold their jewels to support the war, which was considered holy. The Hindoo troops again crossed the Indus and advanced to Peshawur, where the two armies were encamped opposite to each other for forty days, before joining issue. Mahmood at length commenced the

engagement by a large body of archers, but they were driven back with the loss of 5 000, by the impetuosity of the bare-headed and bare footed Gukkers, a tribe of savages, living in the hills and fastnesses to the east of the Indus, the ancestors of the modern Jatts. The battle was long doubtful, but was at length decided by the flight of the wounded elephant of Anangpal, when the whole body of Hindoos, no longer having their leader before their eyes, dispersed in utter disorder, leaving 20,000 dead on the field. Mahmood determined to allow them no time to rally, but on reaching the Punjab found their discomfiture so complete so as to afford him leisure for a plundering expedition to the temple of Nagarcote, north-west of Lahore, a place of peculiar sanctity, built over a natural flame which issued from the mountain, and was the origin of its religious renown. It was so strongly fortified as to be deemed impregnable, it was therefore selected as the depository of the wealth of the neighbourhood, and was said at this time to contain a greater quantity of gold, silver, precious stones, and pearls than was to be found in the treasury of any prince on earth. It was, however, captured with ease, and Mahmood

Capture of  
Nagarcote, 1008

sent off to Ghuzni, which now began to wear the appearance of a Hindoo city

Capture of  
Canoe 1017 During the next three years Mahmood was engaged in two expeditions to Cashmere, of minor consequence—reconquered the seventh and eighth, after which he subdued the whole of Transoxiana, and extended his dominion to the Caspian sea. In the year 1017 he resolved to penetrate to the heart of Hindostan and assembled an army of 100,000 horse and 20,000 foot, drawn chiefly from the recently conquered provinces, the inhabitants of which were allured to his standard by the love of plunder and of adventure. He set out from Peshawar, and passed three months in slitting the hills, after which he marched southward and presented himself unexpectedly before the city of Canoue which had been renowned in Hindoo history for twenty centuries. The description given of its grandeur, both by Hindoo and Mahomedan writers, staggers our belief more especially when we consider the limited extent of the kingdom, and the ease with which it was subdued on this occasion. Its standing army is said to have consisted of 80,000 men in armour, 30,000

with plunder and captives, and the latter became so common as not to be worth more than two rupees a head.

Passing over two expeditions of less moment, we come to the last and most celebrated in which Mahmood was engaged, and which is considered by the Mahomedans as the model of a religious crusade—the capture and plunder of Somnath. This shrine was at the time one of the most wealthy and celebrated in India. It is affirmed that at the period of an eclipse it was crowded with 200,000 pilgrims, that it was endowed with the rent of 2,000 villages and that the image was duly bathed with water, brought from the sacred stream of the Ganges, a distance of 1,000 miles. Its establishment consisted of 2,000 brahmins, 300 barbers to shave the pilgrims when their vows were accomplished, 200 musicians, and 300 courtesans. To reach the temple Mahmood was obliged to cross the desert with his army, 350 miles in extent, by no means the least arduous of his exploits. He appeared unexpectedly before the capital of the province, and the rajah, though considered one of the most powerful princes in India, was constrained to abandon it and take to flight. Pursuing his route to the temple the sultan found it situated on a peninsula connected with the main land by a fortified isthmus, which was manned at every point with

emergency, and then leaping into the saddle cheered on his troops. Ashamed to abandon a prince under whom they had so often fought and bled they rushed on their enemies with an impetuosity which nothing could withstand. Five thousand Hindoos fell under their sabres, and the remainder rushed to their boats. On entering the temple Mahmood was struck with its grandeur. The lofty roof was supported by fifty six pillars curiously carved and richly studded with precious stones. The external light was excluded, and the shrine was lighted by a single lamp, suspended by a golden chain, the lustre of which was reflected from the numerous jewels with which the walls were embossed. Facing the entrance stood the lofty idol five yards in height, two of which were buried in the ground. Mahmood ordered it to be broken up, when the brahmins cast themselves at his feet and offered an immenso sum to ransom it. His courtiers besought him to accept the offer, and he hesitated for a moment but he soon recovered himself, and exclaimed that he would rather be known as the destroyer than the seller of images. He then struck the idol with his mace, his soldiers followed the example, and the figure, which was hollow, speedily burst under their blows, and poured forth a quantity of jewels and diamonds greatly exceeding in value the sum which had been offered for its redemption. The wealth acquired in this expedition exceeded that of any which had preceded it and the mind is bewildered with the enumeration of treasures and jewels estimated by the maun. The sandal wood gates of Somnath were sent as a trophy to Ghazni, where they remained for eight centuries till they were brought back to India in a triumphal procession by a Christian ruler.

Mahmood's  
projects and  
death, 1030

Mahmood was so charmed with the beauty and the fertility of the country around Somnath, that he proposed at one time to make it the seat of his empire and likewise to construct a navy to be sent in search of the pearls of Ceylon and the gold of Pegu. But he had the wisdom to relinquish these projects and having placed a

prince of his own choice on the throne of Guzerat, returned to Ghuzni, after a toilsome and perilous march through the desert. Two years after, his power reached its culminating point by the conquest of Persia, but his reputation was tarnished by the slaughter of some thousands of the inhabitants of Ispahan, who had obstinately resisted his arms. This execution was the more remarkable, as in all his campaigns in India, he never shed the blood of a Hindoo, except in the heat of battle, or in a siege. Soon after his return from this expedition he expired at his capital in the year 1030, and in the sixtieth of his age. Two days before his death, he caused all the gold and silver and jewels of which he had despoiled India, to be spread out before him, that he might feast his eyes for the last time with the sight and then burst into tears. The next day he commanded his army, infantry, cavalry, and elephants, to be drawn up in review before him and wept at the prospect of leaving them



charged with avarice, but if he was rapacious in acquiring wealth, he was noble and judicious in the employment of it. Few Mahomedan princes have ever equalled him in the encouragement of learning. He founded a university at Ghuzni, and furnished it with a large collection of valuable manuscripts, and a museum of natural curiosities. He set aside a lac of rupees a year for pensions to learned men, and his munificence brought together a larger assembly of literary genius than was to be found in any other Asiatic court. In the space of thirty years, he extended his dominions from the Persian gulf to the sea of Aral, and from the mountains of Curdistan to the banks of the Sutlege, yet while in possession of this great empire, he considered it his highest glory to be designated the "image breaker."

Musrood  
1000-1010

Mahmood left two sons, twins, the eldest, Mahomed, had recommended himself to his father by his gentleness and docility, and was nominated his successor. The younger Musrood had become popular with the nobles and the army, by his martial qualities, and within five months of his father's decease, marched to Ghuzni, deprived his brother of his throne and his sight, and made himself king. In the year 1034 he conducted an expedition to Cashmere, which he subdued, but was recalled to the defence of his dominions by the irruption of a horde of Turki Tartars, denominated Seljuks. His father had on one occasion defeated them, but he let them off on easy terms, and they recrossed the Oxus in such numbers as to threaten the safety of his empire. Among the generals now sent to oppose their progress was Jey sen, the commander of Musrood's Indian battalions, from which we infer, that even at that early period the Mahomedan invaders found the Hindoos ready to enlist under their banners, and even to cross the Indus and fight their battles. The Seljuks offered their submission and were admitted to terms, which only served to increase their ambition and cupidity, Musrood was impatient to renew his attacks on the Hindoos, but was opposed by advice of his

wisest councillors, who represented to him that the incessant encroachments of the Seljuks required his exclusive attention. He persisted, however, in marching to India, where he captured the fortress of Hansi but was recalled by a fresh invasion of the ever restless Seljuks. Musaoood appointed his son governor of the two provinces of Mooltan and Lahore, which were now permanently annexed to Ghuzni, and marched against the invaders in person, but after two years of indecisive warfare, Togrul Beg, the great Seljuk chief, advanced up to the gates of Ghuzni. At length, the two armies met on equal terms, when Musaoood was deserted in the field by some of his Turki followers, and totally and irretrievably defeated. He then resolved to withdraw to India, in the hope of being able quietly to retrieve his fortunes in that country. But his army was totally disorganized, and, on crossing the Indus, deposed him, and restored his brother Mahomed to the throne. The blindness of that prince rendered him incapable of conducting the government, and he transferred it to his son, Ahmed, whose first act was to put the dethroned Musaoood to death—in the tenth year of his reign.

nesur, Hansi, and the Mahomedan possessions south of the Satlege were recovered, and Nagarcote fell after a siege of four months. The idol which Mahmood demolished had been miraculously preserved—so at least it was announced—and was now discovered by the brahmins, and installed, the oracle was re established, and the shrine was again enriched by the gifts of princes and people. All the other temples which had been subverted were restored, and recovered their sanctity. The Hindoos, flushed with success, thought themselves strong enough to expel the followers of the Prophet from the soil of India, and proceeded to lay siege to Lahore, but after besieging it seven months, were driven back by a vigorous sally of the besieged. Modood expired at Ghuzni, after a reign of nine years, in 1049, and was succeeded by four monarchs in succession, whose insignificant reigns extended over nine years. Then came Ibrahim, in 1058, remarkable for his mildness and devotion, whose first act was to make peace with the Seljuks, and to confirm them in possession of all the territories they had usurped. He extended the fast of the Ramzan to three months, he attended religious lectures, and bore patiently with priestly rebukes, he gave away large sums in charity, he presented two copies of the Koran of his own beautiful penmanship to the Caliph, and then died, after a reign of forty years, leaving thirty six sons and forty daughters. The reign of his son, Musood the second extended over sixteen years, and the throne descended on his death to his son Arslan who immediately imprisoned all his brothers. One of their number, Byram, was, however, so fortunate as to escape to his maternal uncle, the Seljuk monarch, who marched against Arslan, and defeated him, placing Byram on the throne. But on the retirement of the Seljuk army, Arslan returned and expelled Byram, and was in turn displaced a second time by Sanjar, the Seljuk general, and soon after overtaken and put to death, Byram, finally ascended the throne in 1118.

Byram, the last. Byram governed the kingdom with great wisdom

king of Ghuzni, and moderation, and like all the monarchs of  
 1118 his line, extended a liberal patronage to men  
 of learning. Towards the close of his reign, which reached  
 thirty five years, he was involved in a feud with the ruler of  
 Ghore, which cost him his life and his crown. His family was  
 expelled from Ghuzni, and the seat of his kingdom transferred  
 to Lahore, which his son, Khusro, governed for seven years,  
 and then bequeathed to his son, Khusro Malik, under whom  
 all the provinces which had ever been held by the Mahomed-  
 ans, east of the Indus, were recovered. His reign extended  
 to twenty seven years, when he was overpowered by Mahomed,  
 of Ghore, in 1186, and with him the family of Suhkufgeen  
 became extinct, at the close of the usual cycle of 200 years.

The dynasty  
 of Ghore.

The dynasty of Ghore, which superseded that of  
 Ghuzni, and rapidly extended its dominion from  
 the Caspian Sea to the Ganges, was flattered by Mahomedan  
 poets and historians with an ancient and honourable lineage,  
 but the founder of the family was Eiz ood deen Hussein, a  
 native of Afghanistan, of little note. He entered the service  
 of Musaoon, the king of Ghuzni, and rose in his favour, until  
 he obtained the hand of his daughter, and with it the prin-  
 cipality of Ghore. His son, Kootuh ood deen, espoused the  
 daughter of Byram, who put him to death in consequence of  
 some family disputes. Seif ood deen, his brother, took up arms  
 to revenge the murder, and captured Ghuzni, from which Byram  
 retreated in haste. Seif ood deen, who had sent back the  
 greater part of his army, failed to conciliate his new subjects,  
 and Byram was encouraged to return. He succeeded in  
 defeating and capturing his opponent, whom he put to death  
 under every circumstance of ignominy. His brother, Alla  
 ood deen, on hearing of this tragic event, marched with a  
 numerous army to Ghuzni, thirsting to revenge the murder.  
 A long and bloody battle was fought under the walls of the  
 city, which ended in the utter rout of Byram's army, and  
 his retreat to India, during the progress of which, fatigue  
 and misfortune put an end to his life. Alla ood deen

entered Ghuzni, and gave up this city, then the noblest in Asia, to indiscriminate plunder for three, and, according to some historians, for seven days. The superb monuments of the kings of Ghuzni were destroyed, and the palaces of the nobles sacked, while the most distinguished and venerable men in the city were carried into captivity. Whatever provocation Alla ood deen may have received in the murder of his brother, the savage vengeance wreaked on this magnificent capital, has fixed an indelible stain on his memory, and led the historians to stigmatize him as the "incendiary of the world."

Alla-ood-deen Ghory 1162. Alla ood deen, after having satiated his fury<sup>1</sup> at Ghuzni, returned to his capital at Perozekhoh, but was immediately summoned by Sultan Sanjar to make good the tribute which had been usually paid by his predecessor, Byram. The demand was refused, and the Seljuk Sanjar immediately marched to Ghuzni, and defeated and captured Alla ood deen. But on hearing that his own lieutenant in Kharism had revolted, and invited the Klutans, a Tartar horde, who had been driven from the north of China, to assist him, Sanjar replaced Alla ood deen on the Ghuzni throne, and marched against this new enemy, by whom he was defeated. He was enabled, however, to recover his strength, but was brought into collision with another tribe of Tartars, generally called the Euz, and though he assembled 100,000 men in the field was totally routed, and made prisoner. He died in the course of three years, in 1166, and with him ended the power which the Seljuks had been a century in building up. Alla ood deen died in the same year, and was succeeded by his son an amiable but inexperienced youth, who was killed in the course of the year by one of his own nobles, when his cousin, Ghias ood deen, mounted the throne, and associated his own brother, Shriah ood deen, known in history as the renowned Mahomed Ghory, with him in the government. It is a most singular circumstance that in that age of violence, when the

Shahab-ood-deen, 1157

love of power overcame all natural affections, and instigated men to the murder of fathers, and brothers, and kindred, Mahomed should have continued faithful in allegiance to his feeble brother for twenty nine years. It was he who established the second Mahomedan dynasty at Delhi, generally known as the house of Ghore.

State of the  
Hindoo princes,  
in 1191 Mahomed Ghory was the real founder of Mahomedan power in India, and it may therefore be of

service to glance at the condition of the Hindoo thrones in the north, immediately on the eve of their extinction. The king of Canouj of the Korah family, had been compelled to make his submission, as already stated, to Mahmood of Ghuzni, which excited the indignation of the neighbouring Hindoo princes, who expelled him from the throne, and put him to death. The kingdom was then occupied by the Rathore tribe of the Rajpoots, and five princes of that line had governed it, when it was finally absorbed by the Mahomedans. The kings of Benares, who bore the patronymie of Pal, and professed the Boodhist religion, attained great power, and one of them is said to have extended his conquests to Orissa. The family, however, became extinct before the invasion of Mahomed Ghory, when the king of Bengal seized Gour and Behar, and the king of Canouj, the western districts of Benares, which greatly increased his power and his arrogance. In the west, the kingdom of Guzerat was governed by the family of Bhagilas, who were generally found in alliance with the kingdom of Canouj. Ajmere, then a powerful monarchy, was governed by the Chohans, and always sided with the sovereigns of Delhi, of the Tur dynasty. The last king of this line having no son adopted his grandson Prithuraj, the offspring of his daughter, who was married to the king of Ajmere. The king of Canouj refused to acknowledge the superiority which had been conceded to the kings of Delhi, and they were engaged in incessant warfare. Thus, at the period when Mahomed Ghory was preparing to extirpate the Hindoo power in the north of

India, its princes instead of combining against the common foe, were engaged in mutual hostilities, or alienated from each other by family jealousies. Hindostan was divided into two irreconcilable parties—the one comprising Guzerat and Canouj the other Delhi, the Chohan of Ajmere, and the Hindoo raja of Chittore. It is asserted by some native authors that Tejchunder, the king of Canouj impelled by hatred of the young king of Delhi, invited Mahomed Chory to invade India, but the evidence of this act of treason is doubtful, and the Mahomedan prince required no prompting to an enterprise of such large promise. But it is certain that the king of Canouj assumed the arrogant title of lord paramount of India and resolved to support his pretensions by celebrating the magnificent sacrifice of the horse. The other princes of the north hastened to pay their homage to him, but Prithiraj, the king of Delhi supported by the raja of Chittore, refused to acknowledge the claim of superiority put forward by his rival. In this gorgeous ceremony it is required that every office, however menial, shall be performed by royal hands. As the king of Delhi refused to appear, an effigy of gold was made to supply his place, and planted at the entrance of the hall, to represent him in the capacity of the porter. In such acts of folly were the Hindoo princes in the north wasting their time and their energies, while the Mahomedan was thundering at their door.

On the threshold of the great revolution produced by this invasion we pause for a moment to record the civil virtues of Bhoje Raja the last of the really great Hindoo sovereigns of Hindostan. He was of the race of the Prumuras who still continued to reign, though with diminished splendour, at Oojana and at Dhar. Seated on the throne of Vikramaditya, he determined to revive the literary glory of his court and to render his own reign illustrious by the encouragement of literature. While the silly king of Canouj was engaged in celebrating the sacrifice of the horse, and the princes of the north were listening to that imperial

pageant, the learned were crowding to the court of Bhoje, by whom they were entertained with royal hospitality. His memory is consecrated in the recollections of posterity, and his reign has been immortalized by the gains of poetry. His name is as familiar to men of the present age as that of Ramu and Yoodistheer, yet few recognise the fact that he reigned only seven centuries ago, and that he was the last Hindoo sovereign who had the wish as well as the power to patronise letters.



to escape across the Indus with the wreck of his army. Though he appeared outwardly to forget his disgrace, it was, silently preying on his mind, and he stated in one of his letters that he "neither slumbered at ease, nor waked but in sorrow and anxiety."

Defeat of the  
king of Delhi,  
1193

Having in the course of two years recruited his army with Tartars, Turks, and Afghans, he moved again over the Indus, and entered Hindostan. A hundred and fifty chiefs rallied around the king of Delhi who was enabled, on the lowest calculation, to bring 800,000 horse, 3,000 elephants, and a vast body of infantry into the field. The allied sovereigns, inflated with an idea of their superiority, sent Mahomed a lofty message granting him their permission to retire without injury. He replied, with great apparent humility, that he was merely his brother's lieutenant, to whom he would refer their message. The Hindoos misinterpreted this answer to denote weakness, and spent the night in revelry. The Caggar flowed between the armies. Mahomed crossed his army during the night, and fell upon the Hindoos before they had recovered from their debauch. But in spite of the confusion which ensued, so vast was their host that they still had time to fall into their ranks, and Mahomed, reduced again to difficulty, sounded a retreat. The Hindoos were, as he expected, thrown into disorder in the pursuit, when he charged them with his reserve, and as the historian observes, "this prodigious army once shaken, like a great building tottered to its fall, and was lost in its own ruins." The gallant rja of Chittore, Somarsi, fell nobly fighting at the head of his Raypoots, and the king of Delhi, who was taken prisoner, was butchered in cold blood. Mahomed then proceeded against Ajmere, and captured the town, and put several thousands of the inhabitants to the sword.

Progress of  
Kootub, 1194.

Mahomed returned to Ghuzni laden with plundër, and Kootub ood-deen, a slave who had gained his confidence by the display of great talents both as a

general and as a statesmen, was left in charge of his conquests. He followed out his master's plans, by the capture of Meerut and Coel, and eventually of Delhi, which was now, for the first time, made the seat of the Mahomedan government of India. The kings of Cunouj and Guzerat, who had looked on with malicious delight while the Mahomedan smote down their Hindoo opponents, had no long respite themselves, Mahomed returned the next year to India with a still larger force, and a battle was fought at a place between Chundwar and Etanah, in which Jey chunder, the king of Cunouj, was totally defeated, and perished, and the oldest Hindoo monarchy in the north was finally subverted. This reverse induced the whole tribe of the Rathores to emigrate in a body to Rajpootana where they established the kingdom of Marwar or Jondhpore, which still continues to exist. Mahomed then advanced against Benares, which was captured with ease, and demolished 1,000 temples. And thus, in the short space of four years, was the Hindoo power in Hindostan completely and irrevocably extinguished.

Conquest of  
Behar and  
Bengal, 1203

Kootub lost no time in despatching one of his slaves, Bukhtiyar Ghilje, who had risen to command by his native genius, to conquer Behar.

The capital was sacked and the country subdued, and the army returned within two years to Delhi, bending beneath the weight of its plunder. An attempt was soon after made to supplant Bukhtiyar in his master's favour, but it was defeated by the prowess he exhibited in single combat with a lion, which his enemies at court had forced on him. This event established him still more firmly in the confidence of Kootub, who sent him in 1203 to reduce Bengal. That kingdom had for a long period been under the government of a dynasty of Vidyus, of the medical caste, who established an era which continued in vogue in the province till it was abolished by Akbar, two centuries and a half ago. The throne was then filled by Lucksmān Sen, who had been placed on it in his infancy, and had now attained the age of eighty. His long

reign was distinguished by his liberality, clemency and justice. His court was usually held at Nudder, though he occasionally resided at Gour, or Lucknoutee. On the approach of the Mahomedans, he was advised by his Brahmins, in accordance as they said, with the instructions of their sacred books, to retire to some remote province. He refused to follow their advice, but he made no preparation for the emergency, and allowed himself to be surprised at a meal by Bukhtiyar, who rushed into his palace with a handful of troops. The king contrived to escape through a back gate to his boats, and did not pause until he had reached Jugunnath, in Orissa. It is worthy of remark, that while the king of Delhi offered an honourable resistance to the Mahomedans, and the king of Cunouj fell bravely defending his liberty, and Cluttre made the most heroic struggle, Bengal fell without even an effort for its independence. The whole kingdom was conquered within a single year, and submitted patiently to the rule of the Mahomedan for five centuries and a half, till he was supplanted by the Christian. Bukhtiyar delivered up the city of Nuddea to plunder, and then proceeded to Gour, which offered no defence. The Hindoo temples were demolished, and Mahomedan mosques, palaces, and caravanseras built with the materials. After the conquest of Bengal Bukhtiyar marched with a large army to Bootan and Assam, but was signally defeated by those brave highlanders and driven back to Bengal, where he died of chagrin three years after he had entered the province.

During these transactions, Mahomed was engaged in ambitious expeditions in the west. The empire of the Seljuks having fallen to pieces, he was anxious to come in for a share of it. Of the new kingdoms which had arisen upon its ruins, that of Khwarezm, on the eastern shore of the Caspian Sea, had attained great power under Takash, against whom Mahomed now led his forces, but experienced a signal defeat, and was obliged to purchase a retreat by a heavy ransom. On his return to his own do-

Mahomed  
died A. D. 1206

mitions, he resolved to punish the Gulkhars for their incessant rebellions, and not only brought them under subjection, but is said to have constrained them to embrace the creed of the Prophet, but on his way back to Ghuzni, he was assassinated by two of the tribes as he was reposing in his tent, in the year 1206. He governed the kingdom in his brother's name for forty five years, and was king in his own right for only three. In the course of ten years, he completely demolished the Hindoo power from the banks of the Sutlege to the bay of Bengal, and at the period of his death, the whole of Hindostan, with the exception of Malwa, was under a settled and permanent Mahomedan government. The treasure he left, the fruit of nine expeditions to India, is stated at a sum which appears incredible, particularly when it is said to have included five mauns of diamonds.

Kootub-ood  
deen, 1206.

Mahomed, who was childless was in the habit

of training up the most promising of his slaves, and raising them according to their merit, to posts of dignity and power. His nephew, Mahmood, who was in possession of Ghore, was indeed proclaimed king throughout all the provinces on both sides the Indus, but the kingdom was soon broken up into separate states. Of the slaves of the deceased monarch, Eldoz, the governor of Ghuzni, seized on Cabul and Candahar, while Kootub retained the sovereignty of Hindostan. Eldoz, who affected still to consider India a dependency of Ghuzni, marched against him, but was defeated at Lahore. Kootub followed up the victory and recovered Ghuzni, where he assumed the crown, but was soon after expelled by his rival, and driven back to India, with which, after this reverse, he determined to remain content. The establishment of the Mahomedan empire in India is, therefore, considered to date from this event, in the year, 1206. Kootub was the first of those Turki slaves who rose to sovereignty and furnished a succession of rulers to India. Meanwhile, Tahir, the great monarch of Khwarezm having overrun Persia, marched against Eldoz and extinguished his brief reign, as well as that of

Mahmood of Ghore, and annexed all the provinces west of the Indus to his possessions. Kootub did not enjoy his Indian sovereignty more than four years, when he was succeeded by his son, Aram, who was displaced within a twelvemonth by Altumsh, the slave and the son-in-law of Kootub, in 1211. He justified the preference of his master during a long reign of twenty-five years.

Jenghis Khan. It was in the tenth year of his reign that Jelal-ood-deen, the king of Kharism, was driven to seek shelter in India by the irruption of Jenghis Khan, the greatest conqueror of that age, and the original founder of Mogul greatness. The Moguls were a tribe of Tartars, who roamed with their flocks and herds on the northern side of the great wall of China, without any fixed abode. When their numbers increased beyond the means of subsistence they poured down on the fertile provinces of the south. The father of Jenghis Khan presided over thirteen of these nomadic tribes, whose number did not exceed 40,000. At the age of forty, Jenghis Khan had established his power over all the Tartar tribes, and at a general convention held about the year 1210, was acknowledged the great Khan of the Moguls by the shepherd hordes from the wall of China to the Volga. He had received no education, and was unable either to read or write; but a natural genius for conquest, and the fiery valour and insatiable cupidity of his followers, raised him to the summit of human power. The Moguls burst with appetitosity on China, overleaped the barriers which the Chinese monarchs had erected to exclude them; and after storming ninety cities compelled the emperor to cede the northern provinces to them and retire to the south of the Yellow river. In the west, the progress of Jenghis Khan brought him into collision with Mahomed, the great sultan of Kharism, who held in contempt the shepherd soldiers of Tartary, with no wealth but their flocks and their swords—and no cities but their tents. He put three of Jenghis Khan's ambassadors to death, and refused all redress, and the Mogul poured down on his dominions

with an army of 700,000 men. Mahomed met him with 400,000 troops, but was defeated and obliged to fly, leaving, it is said, 160,000 of them dead on the field. Mahomed then distributed his soldiers among his various cities in the hope of impeding the career of the enemy, but the cities fell to him rapidly, and the magnificent monarch of Kharism, recently the most powerful in Asia, died without an attendant in a barren island of the Caspian Sea. From that sea to the Indus, more than 1,000 miles in extent, the whole country was laid waste with fire and sword by these ruthless barbarians. It was the greatest calamity which had befallen the human race since the deluge, and five centuries have barely been sufficient to repair that desolation. The son of Mahomed the heroic Jelal ood deen, continued to fight the Moguls at every stage, but nothing could arrest their progress. He encountered them for the last time on the banks of the Indus, when his whole army perished, and he sprung with his horse into the stream, attended by only a few followers, and sought an asylum from Altumsh, but that prince was too prudent to provoke the vengeance of the man who had made himself the scourge of Asia, and Jelal ood deen was obliged to seek some other refuge. After a variety of adventures he was killed about ten years after in Mesopotamia. The victorious and destructive career of the Moguls does not belong to the history of India, the soil of which they did not then invade. But Jenghis Khan effected a complete revolution in the policy and destinies of Central Asia, and gave a predominant influence to the Moguls who, after the lapse of three centuries, were led across the Indus, under the auspices of Baber, and eventually established on the throne of India.

The emperor Altumsh was employed for several years in subduing his own insubordinate viceroys, and subjugating those provinces of Hindustan which still maintained some show of independence. He reduced the fortress of Puntambore in Rajpootana, captured Gwalior and Mandoo, and then proceeded against Oojein, the capital of Malwa, one of

the sacred cities of the Hindoos, where he destroyed the magnificent temple of Muba Kal, erected 1,200 years before by Vil ramaditya, sending the images to Delhi to be broken up at the entrance of the great mosque. He died in 1,236, and was succeeded by his son, but he was deposed for his vices within six months by the nobles, who raised his sister Sultana Rezia to the throne. This celebrated princess, endowed according to the historian with every royal virtue, governed the empire for a time with the greatest ability and success. She appeared daily on the throne in the habit of a sultan, gave audience to all comers, and set herself vigorously to the revision of the laws, and the reformation of abuses, but she exalted to the highest dignity in the empire an Abyssinian slave to whom she had become partial, and her jealous nobles took up arms against her. She fought them in two severe battles but was defeated, captured, and put to death, after a brief reign of three years and a half. The two succeeding reigns occupied only six years when Nazir ood deen, *Nazir-ood-deen*, a grandson of Altumsh mounted the throne 1246

Bulbun, a Turk slave, and the son in law of Altumsh was appointed his chief minister, and proved to be one of the ablest statesman of his time. Under his administration the government was strengthened by the more complete reduction of the Hindoo chiefs, and his nephew, Shere Khan, who was charged with the defence of the Indus against the Moguls succeeded likewise in re-annexing the province of Ghuzni to the throne of Delhi. Bulbun was for a time supplanted in his office of vizier by an unworthy favourite of the emperor but the disasters which followed his dismissal, and the remonstrances of the nobles constrained his master to reinstate him. In the tenth year of this reign an embassy arrived from Hulakoo, the grandson of Jenghis Khan, before whom Asia trembled and it was resolved to make every exertion to give his envoy the most honourable reception. The vizier himself went out to meet him with 50,000 horse and 200,000 infantry, 2,000 war elephants, and 3,000 car

rings of fireworks By this noble escort he was conducted to the durbar of the emperor, around whose throne stood twenty five of the princes who had been expelled from their hereditary seats by the Moguls, and obtained an asylum at Delhi. Nazir ood deen's private life was that of a hermit, his personal expenses were defrayed from the sale of the books which he transcribed, his fare which was of the simplest character, was prepared by his wife who was his sole female companion. He died without leaving any son, and was succeeded by his minister Bulbun.

This prince was equally renowned for his justice and generosity and for the vigour of his administration though his cruelty on certain occasions has induced some of the historians to represent him as a monster. He continued the hospitality which his predecessor had shown to the dethroned princes of Tartary, Transoxiana, Khorasan, Persia, Irak, and other provinces placed the royal palaces at their disposal and granted them the most liberal allowances. These princes were accompanied by the accomplished scholars who had been assembled around them and the court of Bulbun was thus considered the most polite and magnificent in Asia. He banished all usurers, players and buffoons from its precincts and set an example of the severest frugality and temperance. At the same time he endeavoured to curb the insolence of the royal slaves who had begun to arrogate great power, but he made it a rule to give no promotion to any Hindoo. He was advised to reconquer Malwa and Guzerat which had revolted but wisely replied that the portentous cloud of Moguls ever hanging over his northern frontier, demanded his undivided attention. He resolved however, to inflict a severe retribution on T. Gul Khan, the viceroy of the opulent province of Bengal who had omitted to remit the plunder recently acquired from a rebel chief, and on hearing of his minister's illness, had raised the red umbrella, and assumed the title of king. Two armies were sent in succession against him and defeated and Bulbun took the title in person.



The refractory governor fled to Orissa, and was pursued by the imperial troops. Mullik, one of the emperor's generals, advanced to the camp of the enemy with only forty followers, and rushing into Togral Khan's tent shouted "Victory to King Bulbun," cutting down all who opposed him. The viceroy, imagining that the whole of the imperial army was upon him, took to flight, and his army was entirely dispersed. Bulbun made an ill use of his victory, by putting to death every member of the rebels family, even to the women and children. During these transactions the Moguls again burst on Hindostan, and Mahomed, the accomplished son of the emperor, who had collected around him the men most celebrated in Asia for learning and genius, marched to oppose them. The Moguls dispersed after a long and sanguinary action. Mahomed pursued them with imprudent haste and on his return was unexpectedly enveloped by a body of their cavalry, superior in number to his own followers, and fell in the combat. With him perished the hopes of the dynasty. The army and the empire was equally filled with lamentation, for he was the idol of both, and his father, then in his eightieth year, soon after died of a broken heart.

son the most salutary advice, returned to his own government. But the youth again abandoned himself to indulgence on his return to the capital, and it terminated in palsy. Then came a scramble for power between the Tartar mercenaries around the throne, and the Afghan mountaineers of Ghuzni and Ghore denominated the Ghiljies. The Tartars were cut to pieces. Kei kobad was killed in his bed, and the Ghiljie chief, Feroze mounted the throne at the age of seventy, taking the title of Jelal ood deen. Thus closed the dynasty which has been denominated that of the slaves, which commenced with the slave Kootub, in 1206, and terminated in 1268, within three years of the death of the slave Bulbun.

The period of thirty three years, during which Feroze, 1. 53. the Ghiljie family occupied the throne of Delhi, was rendered memorable in the history of India, by the subjugation of the Deccan to the Mahomedan arms. Feroze, on mounting the throne, put to death the infant son of the late king whose cause had been espoused by the opposite faction, but this was the only act of cruelty during his reign, which was, on the contrary, marked by a very impolitic lenity, which seemed to multiply crime, and to weaken the authority of government. In the fifth year of his reign, in the year 1294, Exped 1 on to a century after the battle of Thanesur, which the Deccan 1294. gave the final blow to Hindoo power in Hindostan, his nephew, Alla ood deen, a man of great energy and violent ambition, but without a conscience, carried his arms across the Nerludda and paved the way for the conquest of the Deccan. He had been appointed to the government of Oude and Korah, and was successful in subduing some refractory chieftains in Bundelcund and Malwa which led him to project a marauding expedition to the south. He collected an army of 8000 men, and swept across the Nerludda with a degree of rapidity, which confounded the native princes, and suddenly presented himself before Deogur, the Tagara of the R<sup>o</sup> man writers, the Dowlatabad of modern history. The rajah, bring<sup>g</sup> in the security of perfect peace,

throne, and endeavoured to divert the people from the odious crime to which he owed his elevation, by the exhibition of games and amusements. He was unable to read or write when he became king, but applied to letters with such assiduity, as to become a good Persian scholar, after which, he surrounded himself with learned men, and took great pleasure in their society. His government was stern and inflexible, but admirably suited to the exigencies of the time. The insurrections which broke out in various provinces immediately on his accession, were quelled by his promptitude and energy, and his reign, which was prolonged to twenty-one years, was constantly occupied in efforts to repel the Moguls in the north, and to subjugate the Hindoos in the south.

Conquest of  
Guzerat, 1297

Two years after he had mounted the throne, he dispatched an army to Guzerat, where the raja had resumed his independence. The country had recovered from the effect of previous invasions, and was again smiling with prosperity, but this new torrent of destruction swept away every vestige of improvement, and the Hindoo power sunk to rise no more. The magnificent city of Pattan, with its marble edifices, built from the quarries of Ajmere, was completely demolished. The images of its opulent shrines were destroyed and a Mahomedan mosque erected in front of the principal temple. Among the prizes of this campaign the historians particularly note Kowla Devec the wife of the king, a woman of unrivalled beauty, who was transferred to Alla ood deen's seraglio, and Kasoor, a handsome slave, who rose to distinction at Court, and eventually became the scourge of the Deccan. The expedition to Guzerat was no sooner completed, than the attention of the emperor was distracted by another Mogul invasion. Two hundred thousand horsemen, under Kutlugh Khan crossed the Indus and marched down upon Delhi. The wretched inhabitants were driven before them like sheep into the city, and famine began to stare that vast multitude

in the face. The emperor marched out at the head of his troops, and the native historian affirms, that on no former occasion had so great a multitude of human beings been collected together in India in one place. The Indian troops won the day, chiefly through the exertions of Zuffer Khan, the most distinguished of the emperor's generals. But in the pursuit of the enemy he was carried away by his impetuosity, the emperor's brother who was jealous of his increasing power withheld all succour from him, and he was cut to pieces after having performed prodigies of valour. His ungenerous master who derided his genius, did not hesitate to say, that his death was as fortunate a circumstance as the defeat of the Moguls.

Capture of Chittore, 1303. In the year 1303, Alla ood deen attacked the fortress of Chittore, the seat of the Rajpoot family, which now reigns at Oodypore. The siege was pushed with great vigour, and when all further defence appeared hopeless a large funeral pile was kindled in the fort, into which the queen, Pudmance, a woman of exquisite beauty, and the females of the noblest families, threw themselves. After this fearful sacrifice, the gates were thrown open, and the raja, with his faithful followers, rushed on the weapons of the enemy, and obtained the death they sought. The emperor destroyed all the temples and palaces which had adorned the city, but spared the residence of the king and queen. From these transactions he was recalled by another invasion of the Moguls, who extended their ravages up to the gates of Delhi, and retired in consequence, it was said, of a panic created among them by the prayers of a saint. These invasions were renewed in 1305 and 1306, but the Moguls were defeated in both expeditions. To make an example of them the emperor ordered the heads of all the male prisoners to be struck off, and a pillar to be constructed of them at Delhi, and the women and children to be sold into slavery. After this event, there was but one farther irruption of these tribes during the reign.

*Invasion of the  
by Jan. 1303* The first expedition to the Deccan in this reign in 1303 was interrupted by the invasion of the Moguls, and the generals who were left to conduct it, when the emperor was recalled, were unsuccessful. Another army was assembled in 1306, under the command of Kalsoor, once the slave, but now the favourite general of his master, and sent to chastise the raja of Deogur, who had neglected to pay up his tribute. It was in this expedition that Kalsoor subdued the Mahrattas whose name now appears for the first time in history. Ram deva, the king of Deogur, made his submission, and proceeded to Delhi to wait on the emperor, when he was restored to power. Kalsoor, likewise, recovered Dewal Deva, the daughter whom the empress had borne to her former husband, and who had inherited all her mother's beauty. After a long pursuit she was overtaken near the caves of Ellora—and this is the earliest notice of them—and on her arrival at Delhi became the bride of the emperor's son, at so early a period do we find intermarriages between the Hindoos and the Mahomedans. An expedition sent from Bengal along the coast to Warungole, which was for nearly two centuries the capital of Telugana, having failed, Kalsoor was sent against it in 1309. He ravaged the northern provinces, obtained a great victory, and took the fort after a siege of some months. The raja was condemned to pay tribute and Kalsoor returned to Delhi.

proceeded farther down on the western or Malabar coast; but he overran the whole of the eastern provinces on the Coromandel coast, to the extreme limit of the Peninsula; and at Ramisseram, opposite Ceylon, erected a mosque, as a memorial of his victories. He returned to Delhi, in 1311, laden with the plunder of the Deccan; the value of which has been calculated by "sober" historians at 100 crores of rupees. The emperor made a liberal distribution of this wealth, but his generosity was forgotten in the barbarous massacre of 15,000 of the converted Moguls who had manifested a disposition to revolt on being capriciously dismissed from his service. In the year 1312, Kafoor was again sent into the Deccan to coerce the son of Ram-deva, the raja of Deogur, who had succeeded his father, and "withdrawn his neck from the yoke of obedience." He put the raja to death, annexed his kingdom to the throne of Delhi, and carried his arms over the whole of the Carnata and Mahratta territories.

Extinction of  
the Chilyue  
dynasty, 13-1

Towards the latter period of his reign All-ood-deen gave himself up to indulgence, which enfeebled both his mind and his body; but the vigour which he had infused into the government still continued to animate it. At length his infatuated attachment to Kafoor, whose baseness was equal to his talents, created general discontent. It was at the instigation of this wretch that he imprisoned his queen, and his two elder sons. Rebellions broke out in rapid succession in the countries he had conquered. Hamir, the renowned Rajpoot chieftain, recovered Clitore; the son-in-law of Ram-deva raised a revolt in the Deccan; Guzerat was for a time in a state of insurrection, and the emperor sunk into the grave amidst these dark clouds, not without the suspicion of poison. It was during his reign that the Mahomedan arms were first carried to Cape Comorin, and the authority of the emperor for a time predominated through the length of India; but the more southern conquests were transient. Though he was often capricious, and sometimes cruel, his rule was energetic and beneficial, the in-

cessant wars of the Hindoo princes with each other were suppressed by his sovereignty, and a general feeling of security gave prosperity and wealth to the country, and magnificent buildings rose in every direction. Alla-ood-Deen had thoughts at one time of setting up for a prophet, but he gave up the project, and contented himself with assuming the title of a second Alexander on his coins. Kafoor produced a pretended will of his patron, appointing his youngest son his successor, and himself regent. Then began the usual destruction of the royal family in the struggle for power. Kafoor put out the eyes of the two eldest sons. The officers of the court in a few days caused Kafoor himself to be assassinated, and placed the third son, Mobark, on the throne, who immediately put to death the instruments of his elevation, and extinguished the sight of his youngest brother. On the other hand he released 17,000 prisoners, restored lands which had been unjustly confiscated, and repealed oppressive taxes. He put himself at the head of his army, and by an act of vigour reduced Guzerat, and captured the insurgent son in law of Ram deva, whom he caused to be slayed alive. But on his return to the capital he gave himself up to the most degrading debaucheries, while his favourite Khusró, a converted Hindoo, was sent to ravage the maritime province of Malabar which Kafoor had left untouched, though by some the expedition is supposed to have extended only to the province of Coorg. Khusró returned to Delhi with abundance of treasure, assassinated his master, and usurped the throne. To secure the possession of it, he proceeded to put every surviving member of the royal family to death, but Ghazze Toghluk, the governor of the Punjab, soon after marched on Delhi, with the veteran troops of the frontier province, disciplined by constant conflicts with the Moguls, and put an end to the reign and life of the monster.

no sooner retired from the edifice than it fell and crushed the father to death.

Mahomed \*  
Toghluk, 1325

Jonah Khan ascended the throne in 1325, and assumed the title of Mahomed Toghluk. This prince, whose follies brought on the dismemberment of the empire, was a compound of the most contradictory qualities. He was the most accomplished prince of his day, skilled in every science, and learned even in the philosophy of the Greek schools, a liberal patron of learning, temperate, and even austere in his private life, and distinguished in the field by his courage and military talents. But all these noble qualities were neutralized by such perversity of disposition, and such paroxysms of tyranny, as made him the object of universal execration. It was the intoxication of absolute power which incited him to acts which none but a madman would have thought of. "So little," says the native historian, "did he hesitate to shed the blood of God's creatures, that when he took vengeance, it seemed as if he wished to exterminate the human family." The very first act of his reign was an enigma. The Moguls invaded the Punjab, under one of their most celebrated generals, and the emperor bought them off with a large subsidy, though he could not fail to perceive that this display of weakness would inevitably bring them back with a keener appetite for plunder. He then assembled a large army for the conquest of Persia, but, after consuming his resources, it was broken up for want of pay, and became the terror of his own subjects in every direction. Finding his treasury exhausted by his extravagant schemes, he determined to replenish it by levying contributions on the empire of China. A body of 100 000 men was accordingly sent across the snow range, but it was attacked by a superior force on reaching the confines of that empire, and obliged to retire. Harassed in their retreat by the Chinese troops, and the exasperated mountaineers, and worn out by fatigue and privation, few of the unfortunate troops returned to tell the tale of their disgrace, and those who



survived the sword and famine were butchered by their own master. Having heard that the Chinese were in the habit of using a paper currency, he determined to adopt this mode of filling his coffers, only substituting copper tokens for paper. The insolvency of the treasury depreciated the value of the tokens, and foreign merchants refused to touch them. The mercantile transactions of the empire were thrown into confusion, and the universal misery and discontent which the measure entailed, constrained him to withdraw the tokens, but not before thousands had been ruined by them. So exorbitant were his exactions, that the husbandmen sought refuge in the woods, and were driven to robbery for a subsistence. The towns were deserted, and the inhabitants goaded into resistance by despair. The enraged emperor ordered out his army as if for a royal hunt, surrounded a large circle of territory, and drove the wretched people into the centre, where they were slaughtered like wild beasts. On a subsequent occasion, he ordered a general massacre of the inhabitants of Cunouj.

Continue 1 fol

ies of Mahomed, against his nephew, who had been driven to revolt

1438

in the Deccan. The young prince was captured and flayed alive. On reaching Deogur, Mahomed was so charmed with the beauty of its situation, and the mildness of the climate, that he resolved to make it the capital of his empire and at the same time changed its name to Dowlatabad. With his usual fatuity, he ordered Delhi to be abandoned, and its inhabitants men, women, and children, to travel to the new city a distance of 800 miles along a road which he caused to be planted with full grown trees. This wild attempt to change the long established metropolis of the empire was for a time suspended in consequence of the intolerable misery it created. It was subsequently revived, but though Delhi was deserted, Dowlatabad did not prosper, and the project was eventually abandoned after thousands of families had been ruined by it. At the same time, as if to

mock the calamities of his subjects, he caused a decayed tooth, which had been extracted, to be interred at Beer, and erected a magnificent mausoleum over it. At length he conceived the notion that the disasters of his reign arose from the fact of his not having received investiture from the Caliph, the successor of Mahomed. A splendid embassy was accordingly sent to Bagdad, and on its return with the firman, he ordered the names of all his predecessors who had not received the same honour, to be struck out of the royal calendar.

avenge the wanton slaughter of seventy of their nobles. The emperor immediately proceeded against them, gave up the cities of Surat and Cambay to plunder, and ravaged the whole province as if it had been an enemy's country. The Guzerat Moguls obtained an asylum in the Deccan, where they were joined by all whom the atrocities of Mahomed had exasperated and, having taken possession of Dowlatabad, proclaimed Ismael Khan, an Afghan, king. The emperor marched against them with great promptitude, inflicted a signal defeat on them, and shut them in that fortress. But, while engaged in besieging it, he was called away by a fresh conspiracy in Guzerat. The Moguls defeated his son in law, who had been left in command and in conjunction with the governor of Malwa, who had likewise revolted from his master, succeeded in establishing a new monarchy in the Deccan which is known in history as the Bahmany kingdom. In 1351, Mahomed proceeded against the prince of Tatta, in Sinde, who had given an asylum to the Guzerat insurgents. He halted within a few miles of that city to celebrate the Mohurram, and surfeited himself with fish, which brought on  
 Death of Mahomed 1351 a fever of which he died in 1351. At the time of his death all the Mahomedan possessions in the Deccan, as well as the province of Bengal, had been alienated from the throne of Delhi.

Feroze Toghluk, 1351—1388 Mahomed was succeeded by his nephew Feroze Toghluk, who endeavoured to recover Bengal, but seeing no chance of success, acknowledged the independence of Hyjee, who had assumed the government, and wisely fixed the boundaries of the kingdom. Soon after, he consented to receive an envoy from the Bahmany king of the Deccan, and thus admitted the fact of his sovereignty. The reign of Feroze though by no means brilliant was marked by a wise administration. He discouraged luxury by his own example, repealed vexatious imposts, limited the number of capital punishments, and abolished torture and mutilation. But the erection of public works was his ruling passion,

and the historians of his day enumerate with exultation among the monuments which he left, fifty dams across rivers to promote irrigation, forty mosques, thirty colleges, twenty palaces, thirty reservoirs, five mausoleums, a hundred caravanseras, a hundred hospitals, a hundred public baths, a hundred and fifty bridges, and two hundred towns. The greatest achievement of his reign, however, was the canal from the source of the Ganges to the Sutlege, which still bears his name, and places him among the most renowned benefactors of mankind. After a reign of thirty four years, he resigned the throne to his son, usually called Mahomed Toghluk the second, who gave himself up to indulgence, and was deposed by the nobles when Feroze was constrained to resume the imperial power. But he was now in the ninetieth year of his age, and in 1358 transferred the sceptre to his grandson, Ghiers. During the next ten years, the throne was occupied by no fewer than four princes. The court was filled with plots, two kings resided within the circuit of the capital, for three years, and waged incessant war with each other. Hindostan was thrown into a state of complete anarchy, and four independent kingdoms were carved out of the dominions of Delhi, leaving nothing to that august throne but the districts immediately around it.

suspected of treachery. His independence may be said to date from the day of his accession to the government, as there was no power at Delhi to enforce his obedience. It was about the year 1398 that Nazir Khan, the viceroy of Candesh, which consists of the lower valley of the Taptee, threw off his allegiance, and espoused a daughter of the new king of Guzerat, to which more powerful state his little principality was generally considered subordinate. Still nearer the capital, Khojah Jehan, the vizier of Mahomed Toghtek the third, and likewise viceroy of Jounpore, availed himself of the troubles of the times to assume the royal umbrella. The empire of Delhi, thus despoiled of its fairest provinces, fell an easy prey to the invader, who was now approaching it,—the most ferocious of any of those who have laid waste the plains of Hindostan.

Timur 1398.

The Ameer Timur, or Tamerlane, was born within forty miles of Samarcand, and came of a Turki family, which had long been in the service of the descendants of Jenghis Khan. His lot was cast at a period in human affairs when the decay of vigour in the established kingdoms presented the fairest opportunity for the foundation of a new empire by any daring adventurer. Timur was possessed of the spirit suited to such an enterprise, and, having been raised at the age of thirty-four, to the throne of Samarcand by the general voice of his countrymen, in the course of a few years prostrated every throne that stood in the way of his progress, and became at once the scourge of Asia and the terror of Europe. Animated by a stupendous ambition, he led the hordes of Tartary to the conquest of Persia, Khorasan and Transoxiana, and subjugated the whole of Mesopotamia and Georgia, and a portion of Russia and Siberia. Having made himself master of the whole of Central Asia, he despatched his grandson, Peer Mahomed, with a powerful army to invade India. The youth, however, encountered more opposition than was expected, and Timur found it necessary to advance to his support. He arrived on

the banks of the Indus on the 12th of September, 1398, with ninety-two squadrons of horse, and crossed it at Attock, where Alexander the Great had crossed it before him. His grandson soon after joined his camp, and the two armies marched to Bhutnere, but though the town was surrendered on terms, it was burnt to the ground, and the inhabitants were put to the sword. The villages and towns were deserted as he advanced, but a considerable number of prisoners necessarily remained in his hands, and as they were found greatly to encumber his march, he ordered them all to be massacred in cold blood, to the number of 100,000. A battle was soon after fought under the walls of Delhi, between the veterans of Timur and the effeminate soldiers of the empire, with the result which might have been expected. The emperor was defeated and fled to Guzerat, and Timur

they extended only twelve miles from the city in one direction, and scarcely a mile in the other. Beloh Lodi, thinking the pear was now ripe, marched down upon Delhi. The king resigned the throne to him without a sigh, and retired on a pension to Budaon where he passed twenty eight years of his life in cultivating his gardens. With him, in 1450, ended the house of the Syuds.

Beloh Lodi  
1450—1488

Beloh was an Afghan of the tribe of Lodi now known as the Lohanee, which is engaged chiefly in the conveyance of merchandise between Hindostan and Persia. His grandfather, a wealthy trader repaired to the court of Feroze Toghluq, the first great patron of the Afghans where he acquired sufficient interest to obtain the government of Mooltan, to which was subsequently added that of the Punjab. This rich inheritance eventually came to Beloh, though not without great opposition on the part of his relatives. His success was chiefly owing to the talents of Humeed, the vizier of his predecessor, whom he subsequently banished from his court, on the plea that he was becoming too powerful for a subject. The ambitious Beloh was not likely to remain content with the humble limits to which the imperial territory had been reduced and the great object of his reign was to extend his authority, and more particularly to re annex the kingdom of Jounpore to the crown, which, since its establishment, had become, in every respect, the rival of Delhi. Beloh had not been two years on the throne before he made an inroad into it, but was vigorously repulsed. The struggle between the two kingdoms was prolonged with various successes for twenty eight years, during which period Delhi was twice besieged by the armies of Jounpore. Hostilities were occasionally suspended by a truce but it only afforded the combatants the opportunity of recruiting their strength for fresh conflicts. It is distressing to reflect on the desolation entailed on these districts, which form the garden of Hindostan, and the misery inflicted on the wretched inhabitants, by the internecine wars of these two royal houses,

in comparison with which even the oppression of the worst of governments must appear light. Happily for the interests of humanity, the conflict was brought to a close in 1476, when the "King of the East," as he was styled, fled to Bengal and the kingdom of Jounpore was absorbed in the territory of Delhi. The dynasty existed for eighty years, of which period one half was comprised in the reign of Ibrahim, one of the most illustrious princes in the history of Hindostan. Under his beneficent administration, the prosperity of the country reached its summit. Learned men from all parts of India were invited to the court, which was universally acknowledged to be the most polished and elegant in India. The city of Jounpore was adorned with superb and massive structures, the remains of which to this day testify the magnificence of the dynasty. Beloh survived this protracted warfare ten years, and died in 1488, after a reign of thirty eight years, during which he succeeded in extending the territory of the crown from the Jumna to the Himalayu, and from the Indus to Benares.

Secunder and  
Ibrahim Lodi,  
1459-15 G.

Beloh, as if he had determined to render family feuds inevitable, divided his territories among his sons, but Secunder to whom he had bequeathed the largest share, together with the throne, lost no time in dispossessing his brothers. His prosperous reign of twenty-eight years was marked by the recovery of Behar. Though just and equitable in his administration he followed the rule rather than the exception of the Mahomedan conquerors of India with regard to the treatment of the Hindoos. He lost no opportunity of manifesting his hatred of them, and in every quarter demolished their temples and erected mosques with the materials. In the holy city of Muttra he planted a mosque in front of the stairs leading to the sacred stream, and at length forbade the devotees to bathe in it and the barbers to shave the pilgrims. In the year 1517, he was succeeded by Ibrahim, the third and last of his line, who alienated the nobles by his suspicious temper and his haughty



demeanour His reign was a constant struggle with rebellion Behar revolted under its governor, who is said to have brought a body of 100,000 men into the field, and repeatedly defeated the armies of the emperor A prince of his own family took possession of the eastern districts and endeavoured to revive the kingdom of Jeonpore Dowlut Khan, the governor of the Punjab, the viceroys of which had frequently imposed their own orders on the emperor of Delhi, and more than once usurped the throne itself, now entered into negotiations with Sultan Baber for the invasion of Hindostan. Even the emperor's own brother, Allāooddeen, joined that prince at Cabul, and encouraged him in his designs on Hindostan The success which attended his invasion will be the subject of a future chapter Having thus reached the period when the throne of Delhi was transferred to the fifth and last Mahomedan dynasty, we turn to the progress of events in the Deccan in Malwa, and in Guzerat, from the period when those provinces were separated from the empire.

that his subjects were about to elect another sovereign, and take the field. Mozuffar was succeeded in 1412 by his grand son, Ahmed Shah, whose long reign of thirty years, was passed in constant hostilities either with Malwa or Mewar. His name survives in the new capital Ahmedabad, which he erected on the banks of the Sabarmuttee, and adorned with magnificent mosques, caravanserais and palaces, in such profusion, that the Mahomedan historians described it as the handsomest city in the world. He was a zealous Mahomedan, and a great destroyer of Hindoo temples and images. He was succeeded in 1413 by his son, Mahomed Shah, surnamed by his subjects, the 'merciful,' and by his enemies, the 'weak.' Sultan Hoshung the turbulent king of Malwa, died in 1432 and bequeathed the kingdom to his son, who was soon after put to death by his minister, Mahmood Khan Ghilje, the Afghan, who mounted the throne, and proved to be the ablest of the kings of Malwa during a long reign of forty-seven years, which extended from 1435 to 1482. Some years after his accession, he invaded Guzerat with an army of 100,000 men, and pursued the feeble monarch to the promontory of Diu. The Guzerattee nobles, anxious to retrieve the national honour, persuaded the queen to administer poison to him and then raised his son, Kootub Shah, to the throne, and resolved to make a vigorous effort for their independence. A pitched battle was accordingly fought under the walls of Ahmedabad in which Mahmood was for the first and last time defeated, but seeing the day lost, he put himself at the head of some troopers, and pushing through every obstacle bore off the regalia in triumph from the tent of the king. Notwithstanding this partial reverse he seems to have had the most successful range of northern India as we find him the next year marching to Biana, and establishing his son governor of Ajmere. On his return to Malwa he proceeded first against the Bahmany kingdom in the Deccan, then to Candahar, and finally against the rajah of Chittore.

As with

During the scenes of confusion at Delhi, which

Chittore, &c. &c. have been previously described, one Hindoo kingdom in the north recovered its independence, and succeeded in maintaining it for two centuries—the Rajpoot state of Chittore, or Mewar. In the days of sultan Hoshung the throne was filled by Koombhoo, one of the most illustrious princes of that ancient line, who applied himself for fifty years vigorously to the consolidation of Rajpoot power, and founded the city of Koomalnere. In 1456, Kootub Shah of Guzerat, formed an alliance with Mahmood of Malwa, for the conquest and partition of Mewar, but the result of the war is differently related. The Mahomedan historians affirm that the Rajpoot prince acknowledged himself the vassal of Mahmood, while Hindoo writers state that he was triumphant,

dignity, but to transfer the management of affairs to his son. The youth was accordingly proclaimed vizier, and the king retired to his seraglio, which he had filled with 15,000 of the most beautiful women he could procure. In this female court, the pomp and distinctions of royalty were strictly maintained, the royal body guard consisted of 500 Turki maidens dressed in male attire and armed with bows and quivers, and of 500 Abyssinian girls furnished with firearms. Strange as it may appear, the king was allowed to enjoy this pageantry for eighteen years without a single attempt at rebellion. His son, Nazir ood deen, succeeded him in 1500, and his reign of twelve years was noted only by its cruelty and sensuality.

During the restless reign of Gheias ood deen, of Malwa, and the dissolute reign of his son, the rival throne of Guzerat was filled by Mahmood Shah, the brother of Kootub Shah who ascended the throne in 1459, and shed lustre on it for fifty years. Though crowned at the early age of fourteen, his talents were soon matured, and it was while yet a youth that he marched into Malwa, and created the diversion which has been noticed. The European travellers who visited his court, awed by the dignity of his personal appearance, conceived the most extravagant opinion of his power. They affirmed that a portion of his daily food consisted of mortal poisons, with which his system became so impregnated, that if a fly sat on him it dropped down dead. He was the original of the picture drawn by the British poet of the prince of Cambay, "whose food was asp, and basilisk and toad. But even without the power of disgusting poisons, he was a most puissant prince. In 1469, he attacked Gernal, a Hindoo fortress, of boundless antiquity and impregnable strength. It fell on the third assault, when the king is said to have persuaded the raja and all his court to embrace Mahomedanism. Three years after, he overran Cutch and defeated an army of Blochees, annexed Sinde to his dominions and extended his boundary to the Indus. Soon after a Mahomedan saint complained to him that on his

Mahmood Shah,  
of Guzerat,  
1459—1511

return from Ormuz in Persia, he had been ill used and plundered by the people of Jugut, the land's end of India on the western coast. The king and his soldiers were equally inflamed by the story of the holy man's wrongs, and they marched with great zeal "against the infernal minded Irahmins," as the Mahomedan historian, Ferishta, calls them. Jugut was reduced, but the pirates of the coast, who fled to the island of Bete, in the gulf of Cambay, are said to have fought twenty naval battles before they were finally subdued. In 1482, Mahmood led an army against the Hindoo ruler of the very ancient principality of Chumpanere. The place is said to have been defended by 60,000 Rajpoots, of whom a large number fell in the siege, and the prince and his ministers were put to death when it was found that they refused to become Musulmans. The conflicts of the Guzerat navy *with the Portuguese during this reign, will be narrated here* after. On the death of this renowned prince in 1511, he was succeeded by his son, Mozuffer the Second.

verned at the time by Rana Sunga who had raised it to the summit of prosperity by his genius and valour. His army consisted of 80,000 horse, supported by 500 war elephants. Seven rajs of the highest rank, and a hundred and thirteen of inferior note attended his stirrup to the field. The rajs of Jeypore and Marwar served under his banner, and he was the acknowledged head of all the Rajpoot tribes. The historian of Rajpootana enumerates eighteen pitched battles which he had fought with Malwa and Guzerat. Those two sovereigns dreaded lest Medni Roy should obtain possession of the resources of Malwa, and unite with the Rana in establishing his doo sovereignty throughout central India. To meet this danger, they marched against Mandoo, the capital of Malwa, which was then held by the son of Medni Roy, and which did not surrender until 19,000 Rajpoots had fallen in its defence. Mahmood was restored to his kingdom, and in 1519 measured his strength with Rana Sunga. In the battle which ensued, the Malwa king was totally defeated and captured. The generous Rajpoot prince personally attended to his wounds, and, when they were healed, liberated him without a ransom. Hostilities however, continued between the king of Guzerat and the Rana, which, after a succession of successes and defeats, terminated in a solid peace.

Extinction of  
Malwa.

On the death of Mozaffer of Guzerat in 1526, the throne was successively occupied by two princes who speedily disappeared, when the wild and wayward Bahadoor Shah ascended it. A brother of his fled to Malwa, and, in an evil hour, the king Mahmood granted him an asylum, which so incensed Bahadoor, that he immediately equipped a large army for the invasion of the country. While this storm was gathering on one side, the ill-starred king provoked the wrath of Rana Sunga who lost no time in forming an alliance with Bahadoor Shah, and their united forces poured down like a torrent upon Malwa. Mahmood in some measure retrieved his reputation by his noble conduct in the last scene of his life. Though his army was reduced

to 3,000, he still continued to defend his capital with great courage, but he was at length obliged to capitulate, and on the 26th of May, a month after Baber had established the Mogul dynasty on the throne of Delhi, the standard of Guzerat was planted on the battlements of Mandoo, and the kingdom of Malwa, then in its hundred and twenty fifth year, was absorbed in the dominions of its rival Mahmood and his seven sons were sent prisoners to Chumpanere, but were put to death on the road, in consequence of an attack by the Bheels

render of a throne of immense value, which was subsequently enriched with additional jewels till it was estimated to be worth four crores of rupees. Soon after Mahomed in a drunken revel granted an order on the treasury of Beejunagar, and the raja immediately sent an army across the Kistna to revenge the insult, when the town of Moodgul was captured and its inhabitants put to the sword. Mahomed, on hearing of the slaughter, swore "that food and sleep should be unlawful to him till he had propitiated the martyrs of Moodgul by the slaughter of a hundred thousand infidels." He crossed the Toombudra and pursued the raja for three months from district to district, putting to death every Hindoo who fell into his hands. A pitched battle was at length fought, in which the Bahminy monarch was victorious, when having, as he hoped, completed his vow of revenge, he granted his opponent honourable terms and on his return to his own capital devoted his time to the improvement of his dominions. He died in 1375 after a reign of seventeen years and was succeeded by his son Mujahid Shah who possessed the most majestic beauty of all the princes of his line and was exceeded by none in valour and fortitude. He began his reign by demanding from the raja of Beejunagar, Paichore, Moodgul and other places lying in the *doab* of the Kistna and the Toombudra, the object of perpetual strife between the rival Hindoo and Mahomedan powers. The demand was refused and a war commenced during which Mujahid chased the raja for six months through the whole extent of the Carnatic and at length accepted his submission. The merit of the young king in this campaign was rendered the more conspicuous by the disparity of his resources as compared with those of the Hindoo raja whose territories stretched from sea to sea, and who reckoned the rulers of Malabar and Ceylon among his tributaries. Mujahid was assassinated by his own uncle, after a brief reign of four years.



Ahmed Shah, 1337-1435, throne in 1397, and his reign and that of his brother, which occupied thirty seven years, are considered the most palmy days of the dynasty. Feroze reigned twenty five years, and made twenty four campaigns. He carried fire and sword through the whole extent of the Carnatic, and constrained the raja of Beejyungur to submit to an annual tribute of a crore of rupees, and to give him his daughter in marriage. He was a great patron of learning, and erected an observatory. He established a mercantile navy, and instructed his commanders to bring the most learned men and the most handsome women from the ports they visited. His seraglio is said to have contained heruties from thirteen different nations, and the historians affirm that he was able to converse with each one in her own tongue. He likewise made a point of copying sixteen pages of the Koran every fourth day. The close of his reign was gloomy. He wantonly engaged in hostilities with the raja of Beejyungur, and was totally defeated. The triumphant Hindoos appeared anxious to bring up the arrears of vengeance due to their relentless enemies. In the various towns which they captured they razed the mosques to the ground, and erected platforms of the heads of the slain. The end of Feroze was hastened by these reverses, and he was succeeded by his brother Ahmed Shah, denominated Wally, or the saint, for the supposed efficacy of his prayers in procuring rain in a season of drought. Anxious to recover the prestige of the Mahomedan power he proceeded immediately to the invasion of the Hindoo kingdom. He crossed the Toombudra in great force, defeated the raja, and pursued the Hindoos in every direction with unrelenting ferocity, halting only to celebrate a feast whenever the number of the slain was computed to have reached 20 000. He obliged the raja to pay up all arrears of tribute, and then turned his arms against Telungana, captured and despoiled the capital, and according to the usual Mahomedan practice, pulled down the temples, and erected mosques with the materials. He then marched to the north,

where he was captivated with the situation of Beder to such a degree that he caused a new city to be built on the site, which he called after his own name, Ahmedabad Beder, and adorned it with magnificent buildings. He was likewise engaged in two wars with Malwa, and a third was averted only by the cession of Berar. His generals were also sent to seize the Concan, or, strip of land lying between the ghats and the sea, from Mahim, or Bombay, to Goa. But this expedition brought him in contact with the formidable naval power of Guzerat, and he was constrained to relinquish it. His wild career terminated in 1435.

We pass on to the last substantive king of the Deccan, Mahomed Shah, who was placed on the throne at the age of nine, in 1463

Mahomed Shah, 1463—1488 During his minority the administration was conducted by the queen mother and two ministers, one of whom, the preceptor of the prince, was assassinated by her orders, because he was supposed to have acquired too great an influence over his pupil. The other, Mahmood Gawan, was the greatest general and statesman of the age, and one of the most distinguished characters in the Mahomedan history of India. He marched into the Concan, where two former expeditions had failed, and not only reduced the province and the ghauts above it to subjection, but wrested the island of Goa from the raja of Beejunnagur, who had usurped it. He then turned his attention to the eastern coast, reinstated the Ray of Orissa, who had been expelled and sought protection, and added Condapilly and Rajahmundry to the Bahminy territories. But the Ray subsequently took advantage of a famine which was desolating the country to make an attempt to regain the districts he had lost. Mahmood Gawan marched down upon him with promptitude, and speedily extinguished all opposition, and annexed Masulpatam to the kingdom. The king, who had accompanied the expedition, having heard of the renowned temple of Cachu, or Conjeveram, near Madras, the walls and roof of which were reported to be covered with plates of gold, rushed through the intervening country, at the head of 6,000 chosen horse, with such rapidity as to astound the various chiefs. He took possession of the temple, and despoiled it of its wealth before they could come to its rescue.

Murder of  
Mahmood  
Gawan.

Under the powerful genius of Mahmood the Bahminy kingdom reached its greatest limits. It stretched from the Concan to Masulpatam, and from the Nerjudda to the Kistna. The minister now resolved to turn his attention to the improvement of the administration. He divided the kingdom into eight provinces.

and curtailed the power of the governors, thus diminishing the chance of their revolt. He introduced vigorous reforms into every branch of the government to the great disgust of all whose private interests were affected by them. They determined, therefore, on his destruction, and having ingratiated themselves with the Abyssinian who had charge of his seal, induced him, when half drunk, to affix it to a blank sheet of paper, which they filled up with a treasonable letter to the Ray of Orissa, inciting him to revolt, and offering him assistance. The paper was artfully produced before the king, as if it had been found by accident, and Hussun Bheery, a converted Hindoo, the mortal enemy of Mahmood, who had been his benefactor, endeavoured to inflame his mind against the minister. He was ordered into the royal presence and upbraided with his treason. He exclaimed, "This is a great forgery, the seal is mine, but of the letter itself I am totally ignorant." The king, inflamed with wine and passion, ordered one of his Abyssinian slaves to cut him down. Gawan calmly replied that the fate of an old man could be of little consequence, but that his death would seal the doom of the kingdom. The king turned into his seraglio, the slave approached the minister, then in his seventy eighth year, and he knelt down, with his face towards Mecca, and received the fatal blow. He died in graceful poverty. Though he had served five monarchs, his cabinet was found to contain only 10,000 rupees. The proceeds of the *pygeer* allotted for the support of his office, he had in part, distributed among his officers, and, in part, disbursed among the poor in his master's name. The money which he had brought with him into the country had been employed in commerce, the profits of which, after providing for his kitchen on the moderate scale of two rupees a day, were assigned to the poor in his own name. The king died within a twelve month of his minister, a prey to remorse, exclaiming, in the paroxysms of his agony, that Mahmood Gawan was tearing him to pieces.

*Conclusion of*

It is unnecessary further to pursue the history

the Bahmany  
kingdom.  
1389-1512.

of the Bahmany dynasty, the sun of its prosperity set with the stroke which deprived the great minister of life. Mahmood Shah, the son of the late king, ascended the throne in 1482, and lived on, though he can scarcely be said to have reigned, for thirty seven years, the kingdom crumbled away, as governor after governor revolted, and it was at length resolved into five independent states.

Rise of the Por-  
tuguese power

While the Bahmany kingdom was thus crumb-  
ling to pieces, another race of adventurers ap-  
peared on the western coast of India, and gave a new direc-  
tion to its politics and commerce. A Portuguese expedition  
landed in the harbour of Calicut, and paved the way for the  
eventual transfer of power from the Mahomedans to the  
Christians. For some time previous to this memorable event,  
the general progress of improvement in Europe and the in-  
crease of nautical skill and boldness, had inspired its mari-  
time nations with a strong desire to discover the way to  
India by sea, and to participate in its rich commerce, which  
was then monopolised by the Venetians. The Portuguese  
were at this time the foremost and most enterprising among  
the navigators of Europe, and John, king of Portugal,  
anxious to make the circuit of the continent of Africa, had  
sent his admiral, Bartholomew Dias, on this perilous under-  
taking. It was he who first doubled the Cape of Good Hope,  
which he named the Cape of Storms in reference to the tem-  
pestuous weather which he encountered. But the king was  
so highly elated with the success of the expedition and the  
prospects which it opened to him, that he changed the name  
to that which it has ever since borne. Soon after, Christo-  
pher Columbus, hoping to reach India by sailing westward,  
obtained the patronage of the king of Spain, and, launching  
boldly into the ocean, which had never been traversed before,  
made the discovery of America. His successful return from  
this voyage of unexampled peril filled all Europe with as-  
tonishment.

Portuguese ex-  
pedition to  
India, 1497

The king of Portugal was deeply chagrined to  
find that the neglect with which he had treated  
the advances of Columbus, had deprived him of  
the opportunity of adding another continent to his dominions,  
but he resolved to seek compensation for this loss in an  
attempt to reach India, by doubling the Cape, and stretching  
to the eastward. An expedition was accordingly fitted out  
for this purpose, consisting of three vessels, the command of

which was entrusted to Vasco de Gama.<sup>3</sup> The whole population of Lisbon poured out to witness his departure on the 8th of July, 1497, and the sailors went through various religious ceremonies, as men who never expected to return. Vasco was four months reaching the Cape, which, however, he doubled with a fair and gentle breeze. He anchored at Melinda on the African coast, where he was supplied with a pilot to conduct his vessels to India. On the 22nd of May, 1498, he cast anchor on the Malabar coast, off Calicut, which presented to his delighted eyes the appearance of a noble town with a fertile plain rising up in the back ground, bounded by a distant range of lofty mountains. Calicut, then a place of extensive traffic, belonged to an independent Hindoo rajá, called the Zamorin, and lay considerably to the south of the limit to which the Mahomedan conquests had extended. The harbours on the coast immediately to the north of it, be-

the respectable natives who happened to be on board his vessel and refused to release them till his own officers were surrendered. The rajá manifested some hesitation to comply with this reasonable demand, and Vasco weighed anchor in haste and began to sail out of the harbour with the hostages. Presently, several boats were seen to pull off from the shore, one of which contained his officers whom the Zamorin now hastened to release. Vasco sent back some of the natives he had detained but resolved to take several of them with him to Lisbon, to give them an opportunity of viewing the city and reporting its grandeur on their return. Having now completed his cargoes, he set sail for Europe, and, on the 29th of August, 1499, re entered the Tagus, in regal pomp, after an absence of twenty six months. Men of all ranks crowded to welcome him, and to admire the vessels which had performed so marvellous a voyage, the king showered honours on him, and the nations of Europe were enraptured with the discovery of a new and easier path to the land of fabulous wealth.

Second voyage  
under Cabral  
1493.

A second expedition was fitted out in the same year, consisting of thirteen ships and 1,200 men, the command of which was given to Cabral. He was accompanied by eight friars, who were sent to preach Christianity to the natives, and he was directed to carry fire and sword into every province that refused to listen to them. In the course of the voyage he discovered Brazil on the coast of South America, and took possession of it in the name of his sovereign, in the year 1500. In doubling the Cape he encountered terrific gales, and lost four of his ships, in one of which was the celebrated admiral Dias, who thus found a grave in the seas which he had been the first to explore. Cabral on reaching Calcut, restored the natives who had been taken to Portugal, where they had been treated with distinguished kindness. He was received with much courtesy by the Zamorin, to whom he presented gifts of rare beauty and value. But the Moorish merchants, annoyed at



the return of the strangers whom they hoped to have finally driven from the shores of India, effectually prevented them from obtaining cargoes. Cabral presented a remonstrance to the Zamorin, and received authority, as he supposed, to sequester vessels carrying the Mahomedan flag. A Moorish ship with a rich cargo was accordingly seized, the merchants hastened to the raja with their complaints, and obtained permission to expel the intruders. The factory which the Portuguese had erected was forthwith attacked, and all the foreigners in it were put to death. Cabral immediately seized and burnt ten Moorish craft, after having transferred their cargoes to his own ships. He then laid his vessels abreast of the town, and having set it on fire with his artillery, set sail for the neighbouring town of Cochim, where he formed a treaty with the raja, and returned to Lisbon in July, 1501.

north with a division of the Portuguese fleet, when the combined squadrons bore down upon him. The Portuguese fought with the gallantry of European sailors, but the superiority of the enemy in the number of their ships, and the calibre of their guns, gave them the victory. The gallant Lorenzo, whose vessel was entangled in some fishing stakes, and thus exposed singly to the fire poured in upon him from all sides, fell covered with wounds, after performing prodigies of valour, which filled even the Mahomedans with admiration. To avenge the death of his son, Almeyda reduced the flourishing port of Dabul to ashes, and then proceeded in search of the enemy, whom he found anchored in the harbour of Diu. The conflict was long and doubtful, for the Egyptian and Guzeratteo admirals were men of great nautical experience and valour, but all their larger vessels were at length either burnt or captured, and the smaller craft escaped up the river. Peace was subsequently concluded between the belligerents, and all the European prisoners were restored.

laced, then the great emporium of trade in the eastern archipelago, with an armament of 800 Portuguese soldiers and 600 natives whom he had enlisted and trained. The native prince is said to have assembled an army of 30,000 men to resist him, but the valour and discipline of his little force soon placed the city in his hands. The possession of this important position was immediately secured by the erection of a strong fort, and a new field of commercial enterprise to Siam, Java, and Sumatra, was thus opened to his countrymen. His efforts were next directed to the west, and he equipped a powerful squadron for the conquest of Ormuz, in the Persian Gulph. The imposing force which accompanied him effectually deterred the native prince from resistance, and Albuquerque was permitted to take possession of the island, and to raise a fortification in it. Ormuz rose rapidly in importance, the town was filled with 40,000 inhabitants, and became one of the most flourishing settlements in those seas. Thus had the genius of Albuquerque, in the short space of nine years, built up the Portuguese power in the east, and given them the command of the sea, and the control of the traffic throughout the eastern archipelago, which they continued to enjoy for a hundred years without a rival. Though he never obtained possession of a single province on the continent of India, his authority was supreme over 12,000 miles of coast, and it was sustained by an irresistible fleet and thirty factories, of which many were fortified. He was at length abruptly superseded in his command by the orders of his own sovereign, who did not condescend to soften the disgrace by any mark of distinction, or even by the courtesy of a letter. The ingratitude of which he was the victim, broke his heart, he expired on the barque which was conveying him to Goa, and was interred in the settlement which he had created, amidst the lamentations and tears of natives and Europeans, by whom he was equally beloved.

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# CHAPTER IV.

MOGUL DYNASTY. BABER TO AKBAR. 1526—1605

The Mogul  
dynasty 1526

In the month of April, 1526 Sultan Baber captured Delhi, and established the Mogul dynasty, which continued to flourish for a hundred and eighty years, under a succession, unprecedented in India of six monarchs, distinguished by their prowess in the field, and, with one exception, by their ability in the cabinet

Baber's early  
career

Baber, the sixth in descent from Timur, was the son of Sheikh Mirza, to whom the fertile province of Fergana, on the upper course of the Jaxartes had been allotted in the distribution of the family possessions. His mother was a descendant of Jenghis Khan, and it has been noted by historians as a remarkable fact that the empire founded by Baber should be known in history only as the Mogul empire, while he himself execrated the name of Mogul. Baber appears to have inherited that spirit of enterprise which distinguished both his renowned ancestors and at the early age of fifteen, when he succeeded to the throne, commenced that adventurous career, which he pursued without interruption for thirty five years. His first campaign was against the city of Samarcand the metropolis of Transoxiana, which he captured with little difficulty, but he had not held it a hundred days before he was recalled to the defence of his paternal kingdom. He subsequently made three successful efforts to obtain possession of that city which he coveted as the capital of Timur, and was three expelled from it

to his buoyant spirit. Seemg no hope of extending his conquests beyond the Oxus, he seized the city of Cabul in the year 1504, and succeeded in maintaining possession of it for twenty years. During this period he was incessantly employed in defending or enlarging his dominions, and never enjoyed a year of repose. His greatest peril arose from the progress of the Uzbeks, a tribe of ferocious Tartars, now swarming from their native hive, and seeking new settlements in the south. Their leader Shaibek had swept the posterity of Timur from Transoxiana and Khorasan, and in his progress towards the Indus had captured Candahar and threatened Cabul. Had he been able to march at once on that capital, he would probably have extinguished for ever the hopes of Baber, but he was recalled from these conquests by the hostility of Ismael Shah, the powerful chief of the tribe which had recently seized the throne of Persia, and established the dynasty of the Soplus. The Uzbek chief was routed and shun, and Baber seized the opportunity of again occupying Samarcand, from which he was again expelled in the course of a few months.

Baber's five ex-  
peditiōs to  
India, 1519—  
15.5

To compensate for this disappointment, he turned his attention to India, where the imbecility of the emperor of Delhi presented a temptation too strong to be resisted by a descendant of Timur. His first irruption was in the year 1519, and it was followed by two others, in five years, though with partial success. In 1524 he resumed this ambitious project, and overran the Punjab, where he was joined by Alla ood deen, the brother of the emperor, with Dowlut Khan, and other officers, who had been alienated from him by his constant oppressions. But Baber, after having advanced as far as Sirhind, was obliged to return across the Indus, to repel an invasion from the north, and Dowlut Khan, on his departure, deserted his standard and took possession of the Punjab. Alla ood-deen, who had been left in charge of the province, fled to Cabul, and was immediately sent back to India by Baber, with a well-

appointed army, but was signally defeated by the emperor, under the walls of Delhi. Baber now advanced on his fifth and last expedition with an army not exceeding 12,000 men, but they were all experienced veterans. The emperor, Ibrahim Lodi, advanced to meet him with an army generally estimated at 100,000, and a thousand elephants. The destiny of India was decided on the field of Paniput. The engagement lasted from sunrise to sunset, and resulted in the total defeat of the imperial army, and the death of the emperor, and 15,000 of his troops. Delhi opened her gates to the victor in May, 1526, and Baber vaulted into the vacant throne, and, as a token of his success, sent gifts from the treasury to the most celebrated Mahomedan shrines in Asia.

State of India  
on Baber's ac-  
cession

But Delhi had long ceased to be the capital and the mistress of India. The great Mahomedan empire had been broken up more than a century and a half before, by the extravagances of Mahomed Toghluks, and at the period of Baber's accession the various provinces were in the possession of independent rulers. In the southern extremity of Hindostan, the great Hindoo monarch of Beejynugur claimed the allegiance of the various native chiefs who had never submitted to the Mahomedan yoke. Farther to the north lay the territories of the five kings of Beejapore, Ahmednugur, Golconda, Beder, and Berar, who were established on the dissolution of the Bahmany kingdom. The province of Gujerat was governed by a wild youth, who was ambitious of trying conclusions with the Mogul in the field. Rana Sangr, the most powerful prince of his race, was paramount in Rypootana. The opulent kingdom of Bengal, including Behar, was ruled by an Afghan family, and the "sacred soil," as it was called, of Orissa, was in the possession of its ancient Hindoo dynasty. Still nearer Delhi, an independent prince held his court at Jounpore, and supported it from the revenues of Oude. The victory of Baber, therefore, only gave him the command of the districts to the north west of Delhi, and a narrow tract of land, stretching along the

Junna to Agra. He had India yet to conquer, but his generals shrunk from the task, and entreated him to return to the cooler and more genial climate of Afghanistan, where they might enjoy the booty they had acquired at Delhi and Agra. But Baber had crossed the Indus, not simply to plunder provinces, but to found an empire, and he announced his unalterable resolution to continue in India, and pursue his career; at the same time, however, he granted permission to all those to return who preferred ease to glory. His ardour subdued their reluctance, and only one of his generals availed himself of this privilege, and he and his soldiers were dismissed with honour, and laden with wealth, in the hope of inducing others to resort to Baber's standard. In the course of four months after the battle of Panipat, all the country held by Ibrahim Lodi had been secured, and the revolted kingdom of Jounpore brought under subjection.

Defeat of Rana  
Sanga, 1517

But a more formidable enemy now appeared in the field. Rana Sunga, the Rajpoot prince of Chittore, and at this time the most powerful of all the sovereigns north of the Nerbudda, elated by a recent triumph over the king of Malwa, espoused the cause of the dethroned dynasty of Delhi. All the princes of Rajpootana ranged themselves under his banner, and he advanced with 100,000 men to drive Baber back across the Indus. The first conflict took place at Futtehpore Sikri, where the advanced guard of the Moguls was totally routed by the Rajpoots. Many of Baber's troops on this deserted their colours, some even went over to the enemy, and all were dispirited. Accustomed as he had been to dangers for thirty years, this extraordinary, peril staggered him, but he never despaired. He states in his memoirs that in this emergency he repented of his sins, and determined to reform his life, that he foreswore the use of wine, and broke up his gold and silver cups, and distributed their value among the poor. He resolved to allow his beard to grow like a true Musulman, and promised, if God gave him the victory, to remit the stamp tax to the faithful.

Animated by his example, his generals took an oath on the Koran to conquer or to die. In this fever of enthusiasm Baber led them against the enemy, and by the aid of his efficient artillery obtained a signal victory, which completely broke the power of Chittore. He celebrated his success by constructing a pyramid of the heads of the slain, and assuming the title of Ghazee, or champion of the faith.

Conquest of  
Chandergee,  
Orissa, and  
Behar 1509

The next year Baber attacked Chundergee, held by Medni Poy, whose history, in connection with the kingdoms of Guzerat and Malwa has been

already related. Finding his position untenable, he and his Rajpoots devoted themselves to death with the usual ceremonies, and rushed with frenzy on the Mogul swords. Those who survived the onset put themselves to death. In the following year, Baber extended his authority over Oudo and south Behar. But his constitution, which had been gradually impaired by long indulgence, was worn out by these severe exertions in an uncongenial climate. So active had been his life, that for thirty eight years he had never kept the feast

Death of  
Baber 1530,  
his character

of the Ramzan twice in the same place. He died at Agra in 1530, at the age of fifty, and his remains were conveyed to Cabul and interred in a

beautiful spot which he had himself selected for his tomb. The simple and chaste monument raised over his grave continued to attract admiration three centuries after his death. Among the Mahomedan princes of India, no monarch is held in higher estimation than Baber. His career exhibited that romantic spirit of adventure of which nations are always proud. His personal courage bordered on rashness, his activity was almost fabulous. While labouring under a wasting disease he rode a hundred and sixty miles in two days, and swam across the Ganges. He was, however, rather a valiant soldier than a great general and he lost nearly as many battles as he won, but he never lost heart, and was as buoyant after a defeat as after a victory. Amid all the bustle of war, he found time for the cultivation of



literature, and his Persian poetry has been always admired for its elegance. The little leisure he enjoyed from the labours of the field, he devoted to the construction of aqueducts, reservoirs, and other works of public utility. There is no Indian prince with whose individual character we are so familiar, and this is owing to his own vivid delineation of it in the volume of personal memoirs he compiled, in which he records his transgressions with so much candour, and his repentance with so much sincerity, and recounts his friendships with so much cordiality, that in spite of all his failings he becomes an object of personal esteem.

Humayoon  
succeeds to the  
throne, 1530

Humayoon succeeded his father at the close of 1530, but the first incident in his reign exhibited that easiness of disposition to which his subsequent misfortunes were chiefly to be attributed. His brother, Kamran, the governor of Cabul and Candahar, hesitated to acknowledge his authority, and Humayoon, not only consented to resign these provinces to him, but added the Punjab also. By this injudicious act he was deprived of the means of recruiting his army from the countries beyond the Indus, a loss which was severely felt in proportion as Baber's veterans died out, and Humayoon was obliged to depend on the troops he could enlist in Hindostan. In the third year of his reign, Humayoon became involved in hostilities with Bahadoor Shah. This impetuous prince, who ascended the throne at the age of twenty, was incessantly engaged

King of Guz-  
erat defeated,  
1533.

in aggressive wars during the eleven years of his reign. He had subjugated the independent kingdom of Malwa and annexed it to his own dominions. He had compelled the kings of Ahmednagar and Beder to do him personal homage. He had added the ancient and venerable city of Oojein to his conquests, and sacked the city of Chittore, in the defence of which 30,000 Rajpoots are said to have fallen. Humayoon demanded the surrender of a fugitive conspirator, which was haughtily refused, on which he marched at once into the country

Bahadoor Shah had planted his army in an entrenched camp at Mandishore, trusting to his fine artillery, manned by Portuguese gunners and commanded by Roomy Khan, originally a Turkish slave, but now the first engineer officer in India. Humayoon besieged the camp for two months, cut off its supplies, and reduced the king to such straits, that he was obliged to fly, and eventually to take refuge in Diu, the most remote harbour in the peninsula of Guzerat.

Humayoon's  
gallant capture  
of Chumpanere,  
1533

Humayoon immediately overran the province, and proceeded against the fortress of Chumpanere, in which the accumulated wealth of the dynasty was deposited. With only three hundred select troops, he climbed up the perpendicular rock on which it was built by means of steel spikes, and mastered it by an exhibition of heroism which rivalled the exploits of his father. The gallantry of his officers and soldiers was rewarded with as much gold and silver as they could bear on their shields. But his farther progress was arrested by the necessity of returning to Agra, to arrest the progress of Shere Khan. On his retirement, Bahadoor Shah again took the field and regained his kingdom as rapidly as he had lost it, but he did not long enjoy it. While at Diu, he had negotiated with the Portuguese for three hundred Europeans to assist him in recovering his kingdom, and in return granted them permission to establish a factory at that port. They began immediately to surround it with a wall, the rudiments of a fortification, and brought up a fleet to protect the progress of the work. Bahadoor Shah had all the native horror of European intrusion,

in constructing a bridge across the Ganges. Before it was completed, he was attacked and completely defeated by his rival, who now assumed the title of Shere Shah, and openly aspired to the empire.

Humayoon again defeated, and flies across the Indus, 1540. Humayoon at length reached Agra, and extinguished the hostile schemes of his brothers. Eight months were passed in assembling an army for the great struggle with his formidable rival, who employed this period in subjugating and organizing Bengal. The two armies met in the neighbourhood of Cunouj, and Humayoon experienced a second and more fatal defeat. He fled from the field of battle to Agra, pursued by Shere Shah, and had barely time to remove his family to Delhi. From thence he was driven to Lahore, where his brother, instead of affording him an asylum, hastened to make his peace with the victor, and was allowed to retire to his territories beyond the Indus. Thus fell the kingdom which Baber had established, and not a vestige of Mogul sovereignty remained in India at the end of fourteen years. The throne of Delhi was restored to the Afghans. Humayoon made the best of his way with his few remaining adherents to Sindh, where he spent eighteen months in fruitless negotiations with its chiefs. He then resolved to throw himself on the protection of Maldeo, the powerful Rajpoot prince of Marwar, but on approaching the capital found the raja more disposed to betray than to succour him. The wretched emperor endeavoured to cross the desert to Amercote, and was subjected to incredible hardships during the march. The son of Maldeo, eager to revenge the intrusion of the emperor and the slaughter of kine in his territories, pursued him with the utmost rigour. At length Humayoon reached Amercote with only seven mounted attendants, and it was in these wretched circumstances that his queen, who had nobly shared with him all the disasters of this journey, gave birth to a son, afterwards the illustrious ruler of Akbar, destined to raise the Mogul empire to the pinnacle of greatness. After another series of reverses,

Humayoon was obliged to quit Indra, and seek an asylum at Candahar.

Five years  
brilliant reign  
of Shere Shah,  
1540—1545

Leaving Humayoon across the Indus, we turn to the progress of Shere Shah, who now mounted the throne of Delhi, and established the Soor dynasty. While he was combating the emperor, Bengal revolted, as a matter of course, but was speedily reduced to subjection. In 1542 he conquered the province of Malwa, and in the succeeding year reduced the fortress of Raisin, remarkable for its unfathomable antiquity, and for the honour of having been erected, according to local tradition, by the great national hero of the Ramayun. It was here that his reputation was tarnished by the only stain ever attached to it. The Hindoo garrison had surrendered on terms, but the Mahomedan doctors assured him that, according to the precepts of the Koran, no faith was to be kept with infidels, and the infidels were, therefore, slaughtered almost to a man. In 1544 Shere invaded Marwar with 80,000 men. It was defended by a body of 50,000, and by its own sterility. Through the artifice of letters intended to be intercepted, he contrived to raise suspicions regarding his chiefs in the mind of the raja, and thus induced him to retire from the contest, but one chief, indignant at this distrust, fell on the emperor's force with 12,000 men with such fury as to expose him to the greatest peril, and the emperor, alluding to the barrenness of the country, said that "he had nearly lost the empire for a handful of millet." Soon after, the capture of Cluttore placed Rypootana at his feet, and he proceeded to the attack of Calnjer, one of the strongest fortresses, in Bundelcund, but was killed by the explosion of a magazine as he was superintending the batteries.

His death,  
1545, and  
character

Thus prematurely ended the career of Shere Shah. As he inflicted the greatest humiliation on the Moguls, the historians of their party have treated him as a usurper, and loaded his memory with obloquy. But his right to the throne was as valid as that of the Tartar adventurer Baber and in

both cases it was equally based on the decision of the sword. But the kingdom which he gained by conquest, he governed with the greatest beneficence, and the brief period of five years in which he held *supreme power, is the most brilliant in the annals of India*. He was a man of consummate ability, distinguished not less by his military exploits than by the triumphs of his civil administration. Though incessantly engaged in the field he found time for a complete reform of every branch of the government, and his civil institutions survived his dynasty and became the model of those of Akbar. He constructed a grand trunk road from the banks of the Indus to the bay of Bengal, through a distance of 2,000 miles and planted it with trees, and adorned it with wells and caravanserais, at short distances, for the convenience of travellers, and erected mosques for the benefit of the devout. He appears to have been the first prince who established a mounted post for the conveyance of the mails. At the end of three centuries, his stately mausoleum at Sasseram, the place of his birth and of his burial, continues to recall the remembrance of his grandeur and his glory to the mind of the traveller.

Reign of his  
son and  
nephew 1551.

His eldest son was set aside by the nobles for imbecility, and his second son, Jelal Khan was raised to the throne under the title of Selim Shah. After quelling a dangerous rebellion by his promptitude and vigour, he was enabled to pass nine years in tranquillity, indulging his hereditary taste for public works, and if his reign had extended over a longer period, we should probably have heard little or nothing of a Mogul dynasty. It was the profligacy of his successor that brought the son of Baber again to India. He was the brother of Selim, and after having murdered his son, mounted the throne, and is generally known in history simply by the name of Adil. He was remarkable only for his ignorance and prodigality, and exhibited all those purple-born vices which, in India, presage the fall of a dynasty. But the ruin of this royal

Hemu sustains  
the throne

house was retarded by the matchless talents of Hemu, a Hindoo, originally a shopkeeper, whose figure is said—but only by Mogul historians—to have been as mean as his origin. Adil having exhausted his treasury by profligate waste, began to resume the jaygeers of his Patan nobles, and they went one by one into insurrection. Five independent sovereignties were forthwith established in the dominions under the crown, till nothing was left to it, except some of the districts around the metropolis. Hemu presented a bold front to these difficulties, and had succeeded in reducing two of the rebels, when the aspect of affairs was at once changed by the appearance of Humayoon on the banks of the Indus.

prince On his death, which happened soon after, Humayoon entered the city as a friend, but put the greater portion of the Persian garrison to the sword, an act of perfidy which has fixed an indelible stain on his memory Having thus obtained possession of Candahar, he marched to Cabul and established his authority in that province, but had to maintain a protracted struggle with his brothers, in which he was alternately victorious and defeated His brother Kamran at length fell into his hands, and to his disgrace, he ordered the sight of the unfortunate prince to be extinguished.

He crosses the Indus and remounts the throne, 1555. After ten years of incessant warfare, the increasing confusion at the capital of India tempted Humayoon to make a bold stroke to regain the throne He crossed the Indus in 1555 and obtained a complete victory over Secunder Soor, who had usurped the imperial authority at the capital, and who was posted at Sirhind with a body of 80 000 men In this battle the young Akbar gained his first laurels Leaving the young prince in the Punjab to watch the movements of the usurper, Humayoon hastened to Delhi, and mounted the throne he had lost fifteen years before But before he could recover the dominions attached to it his career was brought to a close by a fatal accident Six months after he had entered Delhi while descending the steps of his library, he heard the muezzins call to prayer, and stopped to repeat the creed, and sat down As he endeavoured to rise, leaning on his staff, it slipped on the polished steps and he fell over the parapet, and four days after closed his chequered life, at the age of forty nine

Accession of Akbar 1556. Akbar, the greatest prince of the dynasty of Baber, whose genius raised the empire of the Moguls to the summit of renown, was only thirteen years and three months of age when the death of Humayoon placed him upon the throne, which he continued to adorn for fifty years He was the contemporary of Queen Elizabeth,

his reign having begun two years before, and ended two years after hers, and thus, by a memorable coincidence, this period of half a century has been rendered as illustrious in the annals of England as of India. During the minority of Akbar, the regency continued in the hands of Byram Khan, a Turkoman, the companion of Humayoon in all his vicissitudes, and the greatest captain and statesman of the age, but a man of austere manners and stern bigotry. Hemu, the Hindoo general of Sultan Adil, was employed in quelling a rebellion in Bengal when he heard of the death of Humayoon, and conceiving fresh hopes from that event deposited the emperor at Ghunar, and moved up with an army of 30,000 men

Defeat of Hemu, 1556 which was swelled to 100,000 as he advanced Agra and Delhi opened their gates to him, and so completely were the commanders in Akbar's army confounded by the rapidity of his successes, that they entreated their master to abandon India and return to Afghanistan. Byram alone advised an immediate and vigorous attack, and Akbar, though only a stripling, seconded his ardour. The two armies met at Paniput, and the destiny of India was a second time decided on that field. Hemu, after prodigies of valour, was completely defeated, and conducted, bleeding from his wounds, to the tent of Akbar. Byram urged him to secure for himself the religious merit of slaying an infidel, but the generous youth refused to imbrue his hands in the blood of a gallant and now helpless foe, and Byram struck off the head of the captive with one stroke of his scymitar.

Arrogance and  
F of Byram,  
160

It was the military talent of Byram, and the vigour of his measures, which had seated Akbar on the throne but the minister had grown too big for a subject. So great indeed was his power and influence that for four years after his accession, Akbar felt himself a mere cipher in his own dominions. Such thralldom was intolerable to a high spirited prince, and when he had reached the age of eighteen he resolved to throw off the yoke. On the plea of the sudden illness of his mother, he repaired abruptly to Delhi,



and immediately issued a proclamation<sup>1</sup> announcing that he had taken the government into his own hands, and that no orders were to be obeyed but those which issued from himself. Byram felt that his power was slipping away, and endeavoured to regain it, but he had alienated all the public officers by his haughty demeanour, and in the time of his adversity found that he was without a friend. He retired to Nagore, giving out that he was proceeding on pilgrimage, but he lingered there in the hope of receiving some gracious message from his master Akbar, however, discharged him from all his offices and requested him to hasten his departure. Stung by this indignity, he assembled an army, and marched against the imperial troops. He was signally defeated, and constrained to throw himself on the mercy of the emperor. As the fallen minister entered the royal tent, with his turban humbly suspended on his neck, and cast himself at the feet of the prince whom he had cherished from his cradle, Akbar hastened to raise him, and seated him on his right hand, investing him with a robe of honour, and offering him the choice of any post in the empire. The pride of Byram, who had been the instrument of erecting the Mogul throne a second time in India, led him to prefer a retreat to Mecca, and he accordingly proceeded to the sea coast, but was assassinated on the route by an Afghan, whose father he had put to death.

Akbar his own  
master at  
eighteen

Akbar was now his own master, at the age of eighteen, but he was surrounded with difficulties which would have broken a spirit of less energy.

For some time after its establishment, the dynasty of the Moguls was weaker than any which had risen to power since the Mahomedans first crossed the India. It was not connected with any large and powerful tribes beyond that river, ready to support the progress of their countrymen. It had no resources in reserve. Akbar's army was simply an assembly of mercenaries drawn together by the hope of plunder from the various countries of Central Asia. His officers were only a band of adventurers, bound to his family by no ties of here-

ditary loyalty, and more disposed to carve out kingdoms for themselves, as other adventurers had done for five centuries, than to unite in building up a Mogul empire. Their ambition had been effectually curbed by the iron despotism of Byram, but blazed forth on his removal, the effect of which soon became visible in the growth of disorders. In the fourth year of his reign, Akbar extended his authority along the banks of the Ganges to Jounpore, the son of the last king, Adili, advanced to recover his dominions, and was defeated by Zeman Khan, but that general, despising the youth of his sovereign, withheld the royal share of the booty, and manifested such a spirit of independence, that Akbar was obliged to take the field, and reduce him to obedience.

Revolt of Ak-  
bar's generals,  
1560—1567

Heroism of a her valour She led her army in person against  
 Hindoo princes, the invader, and maintained the conflict with the  
 1764. greatest heroism till she received a wound in her eye The  
 troops, missing her command, began to give way, when she, to  
 avoid falling into the hands of the enemy, seized the weapon  
 of the elephant driver and plunged it into her own bosom  
 Her exploits are still a favourite theme with the Hindoo bards  
 The booty obtained by this capture consisted of a hundred  
 jars of gold coin independently of jewels and gold and silver  
 images, and Asaf Jah appropriated the largest portion of it to  
 his own use and then joined the hostile confederacy, which  
 now included the most eminent of Akbar's generals •

The danger of the emperor was extreme It

Revol of  
 Akbar's brother was as much a struggle for the throne, as the  
 1800. battle of Panipat, and the question at issue was,

whether the empire should be Mogul or Uzbek Akbar's  
 detachments were repeatedly defeated, but he maintained the  
 conflict with unflinching resolution for two years Just at  
 this critical juncture, his brother Hakim ungratefully took  
 advantage of his embarrassments, and endeavoured to wrest  
 the province of Lahore from the crown Akbar was obliged to  
 quit the pursuit of the Uzbeks to meet this new revolt,  
 which, however, he succeeded in crushing at once On his  
 return to the south, he found that the revolted generals had  
 obtained possession of the districts of Allahabad and Oude,  
 and were preparing to advance on the capital The rains had  
 set in when all military operations are generally suspended,  
 but he did not hesitate to march against them and by the  
 promptitude and vigour of his attack, completely broke the  
 strength of the confederacy and, at the age of twenty five,  
 had the happiness of seeing his authority firmly established  
 throughout his dominions Nothing gives us a  
 higher idea of the real greatness of Akbar's  
 character, than the conflict which at so early an  
 age, he successfully maintained against his own mutinous  
 troops and officers

Akbar's an-  
 nual  
 1607

Baber, with a liberality of spirit foreign to every preceding conqueror, had determined to strengthen his government by matrimonial alliances with the Hindoos. He encouraged his son Humayoon to espouse a daughter of Bhugwan Dass, the raja of Jeypore. Akbar, following his father's example, allied himself with the same house, as well as with the ruling family of Marwar, or Joudhpore. At the same time he conferred an office of high dignity at his court on the raja of Jeypore. Thus the purest Hindoo blood was mingled with that of the Mahomedan conquerors, and the princes of Rajpootana gloried in these imperial alliances as conferring additional dignity on their families. But the orthodox house of Chittore, wrapped up in its religious pride and exclusiveness, disdained any such connection, and even excommunicated the rajas of Jeypore and Marwar, though Bappa, the founder of that family, considered by his countrymen as the "son of Hindoo dignity," married Mahomedan wives without number, and left a hundred and thirty circumcised children.

Matrimonial  
alliances with  
the Rajpoot  
princes.

to the number of 8,000 With that generosity of character which distinguished Akbar, he erected a statue to the memory of his heroic foe in the most conspicuous place of his palace

at Delli The fall of Chittore—which from that

Capture and  
abandonment of  
Chittore, 1568.

period was abandoned for the new capital, Oody-  
pore, called by the founder after his own name—

was considered the most fatal blow which had fallen for ages on that royal house The remembrance of this event has been perpetuated throughout India by a most remarkable practice Akbar estimated the golden ornaments taken from the Rajpoots at seventy four maunds and a half The numerals, 74½, were therefore deemed accursed The Rajpoots, and more particularly the Marwarrees, are now the largest and most enterprising mercantile community in India, and their commercial correspondence bears the impress of these figures, signifying that “the sin of the slaughter of Chittore is invoked on any one who violates the secrecy of the letter” The practice has now become universal throughout India.

Conquest of  
Guzerat, 15 2

Akbar's next enterprize was one of greater magnitude The province of Guzerat, enlarged by the conquests of Babadoor Shah about forty years before this period, and enriched by maritime commerce, was estimated to yield a revenue of five crores of rupees, and to be equal to the support of 200 000 troops, but it had been a prey to faction since his death Four weak and profligate monarchs had filled the throne in thirty six years The distraction of the kingdom had been increased by the arrival of the Mirzas, as they are styled by the native historians, a family connected with Akbar by the ties of blood, who had revolted against his authority, and, having been driven out of his dominions, transferred their intrigues to Guzerat Etimad Khan, originally a Hindoo slave, who now managed the government in the name of Mozuffer the Third, seeing no other mode of quelling the factions in the country, invited Akbar to take possession of it The emperor proceeded with a powerful army to Puttun, where that feeble monarch advanced to meet

Destruction of  
Gour, c. 1550

It was a short time previous to the invasion of Bengal by Akbar, that the ancient city of Gour was depopulated and abandoned, after having existed more than twenty centuries. It was admirably situated on the confines of Bengal and Behar for the government of both these provinces, it had been the capital of a hundred kings, by whom it was successively adorned with the most superb edifices. It extended along the banks of the Ganges, and was defended from the encroachments of the river by a stone embankment, not less than fifteen miles in length. This magnificent city, the seat of wealth and luxury, was suddenly humbled to the dust by some pestilential disease, which has never been satisfactorily explained. The establishments of government were transferred, in the first instance, to Tondah, and then to Rajmahal.

Conquest of  
Cashmere, 1587

The next important event in the reign of Akbar was the conquest of Cashmere, by his brother in law, the raja of Jeypore, when the Mahomedan king of that province was enrolled among the nobles of the court, and this lovely valley, the paradise of Asia became the summer retreat of the emperors of Delhi. The attempt which Akbar was required to make, soon after, to curb the highland tribes around the plain of Peshawur, proved far more arduous. These wild mountaineers, of whom the Easafzais and the Khyberees were the most considerable and most turbulent, had been for ages the plague of every successive ruler of the province. It was their hereditary belief that the fastnesses of the mountains had been bestowed on them by the Creator, to enable them to levy contributions on the industry of the plains. Every form of conciliation and coercion had been employed in vain to restrain their incursions. On this occasion Akbar sent an army against them, under the joint command of his foster brother, and his great personal friend and favourite, the Hindoo raja Beerbull. Their troops were decoyed into the defiles and cut off, and, to the infinite regret of the emperor, Beerbull was among the slain. So complete

him, and resigned his crown without an effort, and Guzerat, after two centuries and a half of independence, was again annexed to the crown of Dillu. As soon, however, as Akbar returned to his capital with a large portion of his army, Mirza Hussein the most turbulent of the brothers, raised a new revolt, and the imperial generals were reduced to great straits and obliged to act on the defensive. The rains had set in, but Akbar was ready for action at all seasons. He immediately dispatched a force of 2,000 choice cavalry from Agra and followed it with 300 of his own guards marching in that season, no less than four hundred and fifty miles in nine days. The rapidity and vigour of his movements confounded the rebels, they suffered a signal defeat, and the subjugation of the province was completed.

Orissa conquered by the Afghans, 1550

The attention of Akbar was next directed to the recovery of Bengal, but before narrating this expedition, it is necessary to advert to the fortunes of the neighbouring kingdom of Orissa. That country had been governed by the family of the Gajaputes, or lords of the elephant, from a very remote period of Hindoo history. About 400 years before the time under review, the throne was occupied by the dynasty of the Gungabungsus. The princes of this race expended the revenues of the country in the erection of the most magnificent temples, and extended their authority from the river Hooghly to the Godavery, and on one occasion carried their arms as far south as Conjeveram in the vicinity of Madras. A little before the period of Akbar's accession, the king of Golconda, who was endeavouring to extend his power over the Hindoo tribes on the sea coast, attacked the king of Orissa, Mokund Rao, the last of his race, at the same time, Soliman, the king of Bengal, sent his general Kalapahar with a large body of Afghan cavalry to invade it from the north. The valour of the raja was of little avail he was defeated and slain in 1558 and this venerable Hindoo monarchy, which had never before felt the shock of a Mahomedan invasion, was extinguished, and

the Afghans parcelled the country out in jaygeers among themselves. The native inhabitants who had enjoyed the undisturbed exercise of their religion from time immemorial, were now to taste the bitterness of persecution. Kala pahar was a brahmin by birth, but had embraced the religion of the Prophet to obtain the hand of a princess of Gour, and now became a relentless oppressor of his former creed. So terrific did he appear to the Hindoos, that it was popularly reported that the legs and arms of the idols dropped off at the sound of his awful kettle drum. He made every effort to root out Hindooism: he persecuted the priests, and confiscated the religious endowments which had accumulated during twenty generations of devout monarchs: he pulled down the temples, and erected mosques with the materials, and seized the image of Jugunnath, which he committed to the flames on the banks of the Ganges.

Akbar invades  
Bengal, 156.

The attention of Akbar was drawn to Bengal even while he was engaged in the subjugation of Guzerat. Under the successor of Shere Shah, the Afghan governor had assumed independence, and four kings reigned in Bengal during a period of thirty years, of whom the most distinguished was Soliman, the conqueror of Orissa. In the height of his prosperity, he had the wisdom to acknowledge the supremacy of the emperor. But his successor, Dood Khan, a debauchee and a coward who ascended the throne in 1573, finding himself at the head of an army which was estimated, by oriental exaggeration, at 110 000 infantry, 40,000 cavalry, and 20 000 guns of all sizes, considered himself a match for Akbar, and while he was engaged in Guzerat attacked and captured a fort above Ghazee-pore. Akbar immediately ordered a large army to proceed to the conquest of Bengal. Ghazee-pore, which was strongly garrisoned, submitted after a brave resistance, and the king fled to Orissa, where he made one bold stand for his throne. He was defeated, but allowed to return Orissa, as a feudatory of Delhi. The year after on the withdrawal of a portion of the imperial



Destruction of  
Gour c. 1560

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was the disgrace, that according to the historian of this reign, of 40,000 horse and foot, who entered the hills, scarcely an individual escaped. Such wholesale destruction would appear incredible if we had not witnessed an example of it in the same scene in our own day. The task of subjugating them was then committed to the rajas Toder Mall and Mau Sing, who established military posts in the hills, and cut off the supplies of the mountaineers from the plains, and thus imposed some restraint on their violence. They became, however, as troublesome a century after, in the days of Aurungzebe, as they had been in the time of Albar, and it is only since the establishment of British authority at Peshawar, that they have felt themselves in the presence of a master.

Conquest of  
Sinde and Can-  
dahar 1531-94

Akbar, having no other war on his hands, proceeded to annex the kingdom of Sind to his dominions, and soon after reconquered the province of Candahar. Thus after a series of conflicts, which extended over a period of twenty five years, Akbar saw himself the undisputed monarch of all his hereditary territories beyond the Indus, and of all the principalities which had ever belonged to the crown of Delhi, north of the Nerbudda, and it only remained to extend his authority over the Deccan. A brief notice of the events in that region, during the sixteenth century, will form a suitable introduction to the Mogul expedition, on which Albar now entered.

Hisory of the  
Deccan in the  
16th century

It has been stated in a previous chapter that on the decline of the Bahmany kingdom the governors of the different provinces threw off their allegiance and that at the period of Baber's invasion, five separate kingdoms had been established in the Deccan, at Beejapore Ahmednugur Golconda, Beder, and Berar. Of these Beder the most insignificant was gradually absorbed by its more powerful neighbours. Berar was scarcely of more weight in the politics of the Deccan, and was extinguished about the year 1572 by the Nizam Shahee ruler of Ahmednugur. The kingdom of Golconda,

The kingdom  
of Beder and  
Berar

which was sometimes called Telingana, as comprising the districts of that extinct Hindoo monarchy, was consolidated by Koolce Kootub Shah, who claimed homage on the ground of being breally descended from Japhet, the son of Noah. His reign extended over sixty years, during which he was employed, as he delighted to say, "in spreading the banners of the Faith, and reducing the infidels from the borders of Telugana to Masulpatim and Rajahmundry." Year after year he took the field against the Hindoos, reducing their villages to ashes, and turning their temples into mosques. Though the kings of Golconda mixed freely in the intrigues of the two other princes of the Deccan, and were always ready to enter the lists against them when plunder or territory was to be gained, their attention was more particularly directed to the subjugation of the Hindoo districts lying between the eastern border of their kingdom and the Bay of Bengal.

Kingdoms of  
Bejapore and  
Ahmednugur

The two states of Beejapore and of Ahmednugur, called the Adil Shahee, and the Nizam Shahee, which bordered on each other, were incessantly engaged in mutual hostility. Within the circle of those kingdoms was included the region inhabited by the Mahrattas, the rise and importance of whose power is to be attributed primarily to the perpetual warfare in which these royal families were involved. As early as 1499, we find a body of 5,000 Mahrattas enlisted in the service of one of them, and throughout the sixteenth century, their armies were strengthened by Mahratta contingents, consisting of five, ten, and sometimes even twenty thousand troops. Not a few of the Mahratta families, which subsequently rose to distinction, traced the origin of their dignity to these appointments. There was as yet no bond of national unity among them, and their mercenary weapons were sold to the highest bidder, even though their own countrymen might be in the opposite ranks. As the object of the kings of the Deccan was to inflict the greatest amount of havoc on their

opponents, the aid of men who were bandits by birth and profession, must have been invaluable

To the south of the three Deccan kingdoms, by the territories of the great Hindoo monarch of Beejunugur, who exercised authority, more or less complete, over all the Hindoo chiefs in the south. The kings of this race had incessantly waged war with the powerful Bahmany sovereigns and on the extinction of their power, were always engaged either in alliance or in war with some one of the Deccan kings, the ally of one year being frequently the foe of the next. The revenues of Beejunugur, which were said to have been enriched by the commerce of sixty seaports, on both coasts enabled the king to maintain a force with which no other single state was able to cope. Ram Raja the reigning monarch, in the middle of the sixteenth century, had recently wrested several districts from Beejapore, he had also overrun Telingana, blockaded the capital, and constrained the king to make large concessions. His growing power gave just alarm to the Mahomedan kings of Beejapore, Ahmednugur, Golconda, and Beder, and they resolved to suspend their mutual jealousies and form a general confederacy to extinguish it. This was nothing less than a conflict for supremacy between the Hindoo and the Mahomedan powers in the Deccan. Ram Raja, then seventy years of age, called up to his aid all his Hindoo feudatories as far as Ceylon, and was enabled to assemble an army, consisting, on the most moderate computation, of 70 000 horse 90 000 foot, 2 000 elephants, and 1,000 pieces of cannon. The great and

Battle of Tellicotta, 25 Jan., 1565.

decisive battle was fought on the 25th of January, 1565, at Tellicotta about twenty miles north of

Beejunugur, and terminated in the total defeat and capture of the raja, and the slaughter according to the Mahomedan historian of 100 000 men. The aged raja was put to death in cold blood, and his head was preserved as a trophy at Beejapore and annually exhibited to the people for two hundred years on the anniversary of his death. The

capital was plundered of all its treasures, and gradually sunk to insignificance. The power of the Hindoos in the Deccan was irretrievably broken, but the confederate monarchs were prevented from following up their victory by mutual dissensions, and the brother of the raja was thus enabled to save some portion of the territory, and to establish his court at Penconda. The capital was subsequently transferred to Chunderghee, which has been rendered memorable in the history of British India as the town where, seventy four years after the battle of Tellicootta, the descendant of the raja granted the English the first acre of land they ever possessed in India, and on which they erected the town of Madras.

During the sixteenth century, the Portuguese made little effort to extend their conquests into the interior of the country. They were content with being masters of the sea, from which they swept all the fleets of India and Arabia, and with the monopoly of the commerce between Europe and India. There are, therefore, few events of any consequence in their history. It was about thirty years after they had landed at Calicut that they determined to obtain possession of the harbour of Diu at all

The Portuguese  
during the 16th  
century

Behadoor Shah, the king of Guzerat, was driven from his throne by Humayoon, and took refuge at Diu, where the Portuguese, after their repulse, had succeeded in forming an establishment. There he entered into a treaty with them, granting permission to erect a fortress in return for a contingent of 50 European officers and 450 soldiers, with whose aid he was enabled to reconquer his kingdom on the departure of Humayoon. The disputes which arose regarding this fortification, and the tragic event in which they ended, have been already narrated. The fortress was completed in 1538, and contributed to strengthen the power of the Portuguese, who had now become the terror of the eastern seas through the superiority of their naval equipments. It became, therefore, the interest of all the Mahomedan powers in Asia to extirpate them, and the Grand Seigneur at Constantinople entered into a combination with the king of Guzerat to accomplish this object. The Turkish admiral sailed from Suez to Diu, with a force of 7,000 men and a superb train of artillery. A body of 20,000 men co-operated with them from Guzerat. Sylveira, the Portuguese Commander, had only a force of 600 men, but defended himself with such gallantry, that the siege is one of the most remarkable transactions in the history of the Portuguese. When, at length, forty alone of the garrison remained fit for duty, and there was no prospect before them but an unconditional surrender, the Mahomedans, exhausted by this long and fruitless siege, drew off their troops, and Diu was saved.

Combined  
attack on Goa,  
and the Forts  
of Goa, 1570.  
—

The greatest event of this century, however, was the siege of Goa, in 1570. The kings of Bejapore and of Ahmednugur formed a coalition with the Zamorin of Calcut to expel the Portuguese from the coast of India, each of the confederates engaging to attack the settlements contiguous to his dominions. Ali Adil came down upon Goa, with a force of 100,000 infantry, 35,000 cavalry, and 350 pieces of cannon. Don Luis, the governor, was able only to muster 1,600 men, including

the monks, but he obliged the king to raise the siege with ignominy, after ten months had been wasted, and 12,000 of his troops slain. Mortiza Nizam Shah of Ahmednagar, descended the ghauts with an army scarcely less numerous, composed of natives of Turkey, Persia, Khorasan, and Ethiopia, and attacked the port of Choul, in the neighbourhood of Bombay, but he was repulsed at all points, and 3,000 of his troops perished in the assault. The Zamorin, at the same time, laid siege to the port of Chale, but it was rescued from danger by the timely arrival of reinforcements from Goa. The Portuguese, having thus repulsed the most formidable attempt made on their settlements since they became a power in India, constrained the discomfited princes to sue for peace, and retained their supremacy in the Indian ocean, and on the coasts of India to the close of the century, when they had to encounter the rivalry of the new power introduced by the Dutch, to which they were obliged eventually to succumb.

Akbar's views  
on the Deccan,  
1595

Akbar, having consolidated his empire to the north of the Nerbudda, resolved to conquer the Deccan. There can be little doubt that this movement was dictated simply by the 'lust of territorial aggrandisement,' and that it is open to all the censure which English historians have bestowed on it. Yet aggression had been the normal principle of every government, since the Mahomedans "turned their face to India, in the year 1000, perhaps even long before that period, and if the enterprise of Akbar had been crowned with success, it would doubtless have been an incomparable benefit to India.

It is difficult to imagine a more deplorable condition than that of the unhappy provinces of the Deccan during the whole of the sixteenth century. The kings seem to have had no occupation but war. Scarcely a year passed in which the villages were not subjected to rapine, and the fair fruits of industry blasted by their wanton irruptions. No government, however tyrannical, could have inflicted anything like the wretchedness occasioned by these unceasing devastations.

So inestimable is the blessing conferred by a strong government in India, in putting down intestine war, and giving repose and confidence to the people, that it appears mere affectation to inquire into the origin of its rights, which, in nine cases out of ten, will be found to be as valid as those of the power it subverts.

Akbar enters  
the Ahmed  
nugur state  
1594

On the death of Boorhan Nizam Shah, the king of Ahmednugur, in 1595, four rival factions arose in the state, the most powerful of which called in the aid of the Moguls. Akbar, who had long been watching an opportunity of interfering in the affairs of the Deccan, readily accepted the overture and lost no time in sending forward two armies. But before they could reach the capital, another revolution had placed the power of the state in the hands of Chand Sultana. She was a princess of Ahmednugur, who had been bestowed in marriage in 1564 on Ah Adil Shah of Beejapore, to bind him to the alliance then formed by the Mahomedan kings against the raja of Beejuynugur. On his death she returned to her native country, and now assumed the regency on behalf of her nephew, Bahadoor Nizam Shah.

The celebrated  
Chand Sultana,  
1595

This celebrated woman, the favourite heroine of the Deccan, the subject of a hundred ballads, determined to defend the city to the last extremity, and persuaded the rival factions to merge their differences in a combined effort against the common foe. The Moguls had constructed three mines, two of which she countermined, the third blew up, carrying away a portion of the wall, and many of her principal officers prepared to desert the defence. The Sultana flew to the spot in full armour, with a veil over her countenance, and a drawn sword in her hand, and recalled the troops to a sense of their duty. Combustibles of every description were thrown into the breach, and so heavy a fire was directed against it, that the besiegers were constrained to retire. During the night she superintended in person the repairs of the wall. It is a popular and favourite tradition, that when the shot was exhausted, she loaded the guns with



copper, then with silver, and then with gold, and did not pause till she had begun to fire away her jewels. The allies whom she had importuned to aid her, were now approaching, the Mogul camp began to be strutened for provisions, and prince Morad, the son of Akbar, who commanded the army, offered to retire on obtaining the cession of the province of Berar. Chand, having little confidence in the fidelity of her troops or of her allies, was constrained to accede to these terms.

5 a codes Berar  
to the Moguls,  
1596.

Battle of Sone-  
pat, Jan., 1637

Within a year of this convention, the kings of Bejjapore, Ahmednugur, and Golconda formed an alliance to drive the Moguls back across the Nerbudda, and brought an army of 60,000 men into the field. An action was fought at Sonepat which lasted two days, without any decisive result, though both parties claimed the victory. Dissensions at length broke out among the officers of the Mogul army, and Akbar, who had resided for fourteen years in the countries bordering on the Indus felt the necessity of proceeding in person to the Deccan. On reaching Boorhanpore he sent an army to lay siege again to Ahmednugur. The government of the Sultana which she had maintained with great difficulty, was now distracted by factions, and feeling the city to be incapable of defence, she endeavoured to make the best terms in her power with the Moguls. The populace, inflamed by her enemies rushed into her chamber and put her to death. But they soon had reason to deplore their ingratitude. The Mogul army stormed and plundered the city, giving no quarter to the defenders, and the young king and his family were sent as state prisoners to Gwalior.

Capture of Ah-  
mednugur  
Jan 7 1600

The fall of the capital did not, however, ensure the submission of the kingdom, and it was not incorporated with the Mogul dominions till thirty seven years after this period. Soon after, Akbar deprived his vessel the king of Canesh, of all authority, and that kingdom was annexed to the Mogul empire.

Akbar's character and civil institutions

but incomparably the greatest of all the Mahomedan rulers of India. Few princes ever exhibited greater military genius or personal courage. He never fought a battle which he did not win, or besieged a town which he did not take, yet he had no passion for war, and as soon as he had turned the tide of victory by his skill and energy, he was happy to leave his generals to complete the work, and to hasten back to the more agreeable labours of the cabinet. The glories of his reign rest not so much on the extent of his conquests, though achieved by his personal talent, as on the admirable institutions by which his empire was consolidated. The superiority of his civil administration was owing not to his own genius alone, but also to the able statesmen whom, like Queen Elizabeth, he had the wisdom to collect around him.

His religious views and his toleration.

In the early period of his career he was a devout follower of the Prophet, and was at one time bent on a pilgrimage to his tomb, the aspiration of every Mahomedan, but about the twenty fifth year of his reign he began to entertain sentiments incompatible with fidelity to the Koran. He professed to reject all prophets, priests, and ceremonies, and to take simple reason as the guide of his thoughts and the rule of his actions. The first article of his creed was "There is no God but one, and Akbar is his prophet." Whether he ever intended to become the founder of a new creed may admit of controversy, but all his measures tended to discourage the religion of the Prophet. He changed the era of the Hejra, he restrained the study of Arabic and of Mahomedan theology, and he wounded the dearest prejudices of the faithful by proscribing the beard. Nothing but the ascendancy of his character, and his dazzling success in war and in peace, could have preserved the throne amidst the discontents produced among his own chiefs by these heterodox measures. Among a people with whom persecution was considered the most sacred of duties, Akbar adopted the principle not only of religious toleration but, what has been found a more difficult task even in the most enlightened Christian com-

munities, of religious *equality* He formed the magnanimous resolution of resting the strength of his throne on the attachment of all his subjects, whether they belonged to the established religion of the state or not He disarmed the hostility and secured the loyalty of the Hindoos by allowing them to share the highest civil offices and military commands with the Mahomedans, and thus placed himself a century ahead of the Stuarts in England He abolished the odious jezzia, or capitation tax, he issued an edict permitting Hindoo widows to marry, he discouraged suttees to the full extent of his power, and he abolished the practice of reducing captives to slavery

His revenue  
reforms.

Under the supervision of the great financier of the age, the raja Toder Mull, Akbar radically remodelled the revenue system of the empire He caused all the lands to be measured according to a uniform standard, and with the most perfect instruments procurable He divided them, according to their character and fertility, into three classes and fixed the demand of the state generally at one third the annual produce, and then commuted it to a money payment He abolished all arbitrary cesses, and made the settlement for ten years and with the cultivators themselves, to the exclusion of all middlemen It is questionable therefore whether, during his reign, there were any zemundars in India at all, and whether those who afterwards assumed their prerogatives were, at this period, and for more than a century after, anything beyond mere officials employed in collecting the public dues

Division of the  
empire.

The whole empire was divided into fifteen provinces, or soubahs —Cabul, beyond the Indus, Lahore, Mooltan, Delhi, Agra, Oude, Allahabad, Ajmere, Guzerat, Malwa, Behar, and Bengal, and south of the Nerbudda Canlesh, Berar, and Ahmednagar Each province was placed under a soobadar, who was entrusted with full powers civil and military, and assisted by a dewan, or minister of finance, who, though nominated by the emperor, was

accountable to the soobadar. The military duties of each province were entrusted to a fouzdar, who also commanded the police force, and was responsible for the peace of the country. Civil law was administered by a Mahomedan chief justice, assisted by local judges, and the decisions were invariably in accordance with the precepts of Mahomedan law.

His military system and the economy of his court

The military system of Akbar was the least perfect of all his arrangements, and his extraordinary success is to be attributed more to the weak-

ness of his opponents than to the superiority of his own army. He perpetuated the great military error of paying the commanders for their soldiers by the head, which created an irresistible temptation to make false musters, and to fill the ranks with ragamuffins. The same organization which pervaded the various offices of state was carried into all the establishments of his court, down to the department of the fruits and the flowers, the perfumery, the kitchen, and the kennel, which were regulated to the minutest details under the personal directions of the emperor. Every establishment was maintained upon a scale of imperial magnificence. He never had fewer than 12,000 horses and 5,000 elephants in his own stables, independently of those required for hawking, and hunting, and war. During his progress through the provinces his camp was a great moving city, and the eye was dazzled by the sight of the royal tents surmounted with gilt copolas, and enriched with the most gorgeous ornaments.

## CHAPTER V.

### JEHANGEEER AND SHAH JEHAN, 1605—1628

Jehangzeer ascends his throne, 1605.

On the death of Akbar, Prince Salim quietly stepped into the throne, at the age of thirty-seven, and adopted the title of Jehangzeer, the

conqueror of the world. The great empire to which he suc-

ceeded was in a state of profound tranquillity, and there was no spirit of insubordination among the military or civil chiefs. His proceedings on his accession served not only to calm the fears which his previous misconduct had excited, but even to win him the esteem of his subjects. He confirmed his father's ministers in their posts, abolished some vexatious taxes and, though strongly addicted to wine himself, prohibited the use of it, and endeavoured to control the indulgence in opium. He replaced the Mahomedan creed on the coin, and manifested a more superstitious attention to the precepts of the Prophet than his father had done. At the same time he courted popularity by affording easy access to the complaints of his people. But a subject of disquietude soon arose.

Rebellion of his  
son Khusró,  
1666.

His son Khusró had become the object of his detestation by the effort made during the last days of Akbar's life to place him on the throne by some of the leading courtiers, and the youth now fled to the Punjab, where he collected a body of 10 000 men. He was promptly pursued and captured, and the emperor exhibited the brutality of his nature by causing seven hundred of his adherents to be impaled alive, while the wretched Khusró was carried along the line to witness their agony.

Parentage and  
marriage of  
Noor Jehan.

The event which exercised the greatest influence on the conduct of Jehangheer for sixteen years was his marriage with the celebrated Noor Jehan. She was descended from a noble Persian family of Teheran, but her father, having been reduced to poverty, determined to follow the prevailing current of emigration, and proceed to India to repair his fortunes. During the journey, his wife gave birth to a daughter under the most calamitous circumstances, though they were subsequently embellished with all the romance of poetry when she became the Queen of the East and was in a position to reward the pens of poets. A merchant who happened to be travelling on the same route afforded assistance to the family in their exigency, and, on reaching the capital took the father into his own employ, and,

perceiving his abilities, introduced him to the service of Akbar, in which he gradually rose to eminence. His daughter, Noor Jehan received all the accomplishments of education which the capital of India could afford, and grew up into a woman of the most exquisite beauty. In the harem of Akbar, which she occasionally visited with her mother, she attracted the attention of the prince Selim, who became deeply enamoured of her. But she had been already betrothed to a Turkoman of the noblest descent, who had acquired the title of Sher-e-Afghan, from having killed a lion singlehanded. He had served with renown in the wars of Persia and India, and was distinguished no less by his gigantic strength than by his personal valour. Akbar refused to annul the nuptial engagement even in favour of his own son, and, in the hope that absence would allay the passion of the prince, appointed Sher-e to a jaggeer in the remote district of Burdwan.

But Jehangir had no sooner mounted the throne than he determined to remove every obstacle to the gratification of his wishes, and Sher-e perished in a scuffle which was not believed to be accidental. His lovely widow was conveyed to Delhi when Jehangir offered to share his throne with her, but she rejected the offer with disdain and was consigned to the neglect of the harem, where she had leisure for reflection and repentance.

Noor Jehan  
 married  
 to the  
 prince, 1611

of the emperor's disposition, and constrained him to appear sober at the durbar, however he might indemnify himself for this restraint in the evening. Her taste imparted grace to the splendour of the court, at the same time that she curtailed its extravagance. Her brother, Asaf Khan, was raised to a post of high dignity, and her father, who was placed at the head of affairs, proved to be one of the ablest of viziers.

Malik Amber  
and the state of  
Ahmednugur

The city of Ahmednugur, as previously stated, was captured by Akbar, on the murder of Chand Sultana in 1600, and the royal family was consigned to the fortress of Gwalior, but the kingdom was not subdued, though Akbar designated it as one of the *soobahs* of his empire. Malik Amber, the chief of the Abyssinian nobles of the court, assumed the control of public affairs, and placed a kinsman of the late king on the throne. He attacked the Mogul forces with vigour, and erected the national standard on what had been regarded the impregnable rock of Dowlatabad, he founded a new capital at the foot of it, at Kirkee, and adorned it with many splendid buildings. Malik Amber stands foremost in the history of the Deccan as a statesman of surpassing genius, who maintained the sinking fortunes of the Ahmednugur dynasty for twenty years with the greatest energy. Planting himself on the borders of the Deccan, he continued to repel the encroachments of the Moguls, and repeatedly drove their armies back to Boorhanpore. He availed himself to so great an extent of the services of the Mahatta chieftains, that he may be said to have cradled their power, more especially was it under his banner that Shihjee the father of Serjee laid the foundation of his greatness. With a natural genius for war, he was still more remarkable for the assiduity with which he cultivated the arts of peace, and it is the revenue settlement he brought to perfection which has given lasting celebrity to his name. He was the Toder Mull of the Deccan.

Jehangir at-  
tacks Amber  
1612.

In the year 1612 Jehangir resolved to recover the footing which the Moguls had lost

in the Deccan, and two armies, the first commanded by Abdoulla Khan, were sent against Malik Amber. But he avoided a general engagement, while his light Deccaneo horse hovered on the flanks and rear of his enemy, cut off his communications and supplies, and harassed him by night and by day so inexorably as to oblige him to sound a retreat, which the Abyssinian soon converted into a disgraceful flight. The second army met the Ahmednugur troops in the flush of victory, and wisely retraced its steps across the Nerbudda.

These disappointments were balanced by success against Oodypore. It has been already stated that Oody Sing, the feeble rana of Chittore, the founder of the town of Oodypore, was obliged by the generals of Akbar to seek refuge in the hills. He was succeeded by his son, Pertap Sing, who is still idolized by his countrymen for the heroism with which he repelled the attacks of the Moguls, and preserved the germ of national independence in his wild fastnesses. Although the Rajpoot rajas of Jeypore and Marwar were ranged against him, he succeeded in recovering the greater portion of his hereditary dominions before the

5 1 Jugarion of  
Oodypore 1614



established. He landed at Surat, and proceeded by slow journeys to the court, then held at Ajmere, where he was received with greater distinction than had been conferred on any foreign envoy. Of the result of his embassy we shall have occasion to speak hereafter, here it may be sufficient to state, that he was fascinated by the oriental magnificence of the court, which so completely eclipsed the tinsel pomp of that of his own master. He was dazzled with the profusion of gold and jewels on every side, and, not least with those which adorned the foreheads of the royal elephants. But he perceived little comfort among the subjects of the empire, who were ground down by the extortions of the public servants of every grade. The emperor dispensed justice daily in person, but he retired in the evening to his cups, which he never left while there was any reason left in him. He was maudlin and easy, and his courtiers were universally corrupt and unprincipled. Military discipline had decayed after the death of Akbar, and the only good soldiers in the army were the Rajpoots and the Afghans. There was a large influx of Europeans at the capital, and so greatly was Christianity encouraged, that one of the emperor's nephews had embraced it, and the Emperor himself had an image of Christ and the Virgin in his rosary.

Secord cam  
paign agt u &  
Malik Amber  
March, 1617

The attention of Jehangir was now called to the state of affairs in the Deccan and he marched down to Mandoo to superintend the war, which he entrusted to the command of Shah Jehan, at the same time declaring him the heir of the throne. The prosperity of Malik Amber had created a feeling of envy at the Ahmednugur court, and alienated many of his confederates. On the approach of Shah Jehan, he was still further weakened by the defection of the king of Bejapore, and was obliged to enter into negotiations, and cede the fortress of Ahmednugur, together with all the conquests he had made from the Moguls. But within four years he renewed the war, and succeeded in driving the imperial forces across the Taptce.

Shah Jehan was again selected by his father to command the army, but he accepted the charge only on condition that his brother Khusro should accompany him. Before he reached the province of Malwa, Malik Amber had crossed the Nerfudda and burned down the suburbs of Mandoo. But success still attended the arms of Shah Jehan. He contrived to corrupt the principal Mahratta chiefs in the army of Malik Amber—some of them by the most extravagant offers—and that general, deserted by his own officers, suffered a defeat, and was obliged to purchase peace in 1621, by a large sacrifice of treasure and territory.

quences. Malik Amber and the kings of Beejapore and Golconda refused him any assistance, his own troops began to desert, and he was obliged to retreat to Telingana. On reaching Masulipatam he marched along the coast to Bengal, took possession of that province and of Behar, and advanced to Allahabad. Mohabet, who was lying at Boorhanpore, on hearing of his sudden appearance on the Ganges, hastened to encounter him, his raw levies were speedily dispersed, and he fled a second time to the Deccan. Malik Amber was now at issue with the emperor, and made common cause with his fugitive son, and they advanced together to the siege of that city. But Mohabet pursued the prince with such energy that he was fain to seek reconciliation with his father, which, however, was not granted but on the hard condition of surrendering all his forts, and giving two of his sons as hostages.

Noor Jehan  
contracts a  
hatred of  
Mohabet, 1675

A new scene now opens in this eventful drama. Mohabet, the greatest subject of the empire, and the prime favourite of the emperor, had acquired additional importance by his brilliant success, but as he manifested no disposition to second Noor Jehan's views regarding the succession of Sbiar, her confidence was capriciously converted into hatred, and she resolved on his ruin. Jehangeer was at this time on his way to Cabul. A charge of embezzlement during his recent campaign was trumped up against Mohabet, and he was summoned to the court to answer it. He came, but with a body of 5,000 Rajpoots who were devoted to his service. He had recently betrothed his daughter to a young noble without obtaining the usual consent of the emperor. Jehangeer, on hearing of the circumstance, ordered the youth into his presence, and in a fit of brutal rage directed him to be stripped naked and whipped with thorns in the presence of the court, and confiscated all his estates. When Mohabet approached the royal encampment he was refused admission. He could not fail to perceive that his ruin was determined on, and he resolved to strike

Mohabet and the Emperor  
1676.

the first blow. The following morning the army crossed the Hydaspes, and Jehangeer, who had not recovered from the debauch of the previous night, remained behind with a slender guard. Mohabet proceeded to the emperor's tent and seized his person. Jehangeer was frantic at this indignity, but seeing himself absolutely in the power of his general, was persuaded to mount an elephant, with his goblet and his cap-bearer, and proceed to Mohabet's tent.

series of skilful manœuvres contrived gradually to turn the tables on him, he saw that his position was becoming daily more insecure, and made offers for a reconciliation. Noor Jehan condoned his revolt on condition that he should proceed in pursuit of her other enemy, Shah Jehan. That prince, after making his submission to the emperor, had fled to Sindh intending to seek an asylum in Persia, but he was still a formidable obstacle to her views. But when his prospects were at the lowest ebb they began to brighten. Mohabet, dreading a reign of weakness and violence if Shariar succeeded to the throne through the influence of Noor Jehan, resolved to assist the efforts of Shah Jehan, and instead of proceeding to attack him, joined him with the troops yet remaining under his standard.

The empress on hearing of this defection ordered him to be hunted through the empire, and set a price on his head. But her power was at once annihilated by the death of

Death and  
character of  
Jehangeer  
167

Jehangeer, whose constitution was completely exhausted by a life of indulgence, and who expired at Lahore on the 28th of October, 1627, in

the sixtieth year of his age. He was contemporary with James the First of England. Not only was their reign of the same duration, but there was a remarkable accordance in their characters. They were both equally weak and contemptible, both the slaves of favourites and of drink, and by a singular coincidence, they both launched a royal decree against the use of tobacco, then recently introduced into England and India, and, in both cases, with the same degree of success.

Accession of  
Shah Jehan,  
167

On the death of Jehangeer Asaf Khan the brother of Noor Jehan, and one of the chief ministers determined to support the claims of

Shah Jehan on the same ground which had influenced the decision of Mohabet. He despatched a messenger to summon him from the Deccan and at the same time placed the empress dowager under restraint. Her influence expired with the

death of her husband, and she retired from the world with an annuity of twenty five lacs of rupees a-year, and passed the remaining years of her life in cherishing his memory. Sharrar, who was at Lahore, was attacked and defeated by Asof Khan, and put to death by order of Shah Jehan. That prince lost no time in coming up from the Deccan, in company with Mohabet Khan, on whom, as well as on Azof Khan, the instruments of his elevation, he bestowed the highest dignities. He was proclaimed emperor, at Agra, early in 1628, and began his reign by indulging that passion for magnificence in which he eclipsed all his predecessors. The anniversary of his accession was commemorated by a display of incredible extravagance. A suite of tents was manufactured of the finest Cashmere shawls, which, in the figurative language of his biographer, it required two months to pitch. In conformity with the usage of the ancient Hindoo sovereigns he was weighed against silver, and gold, and jewels, which were then lavished among the courtiers. Vessels filled with gems were waved over his head and emptied on the floor for a general scramble. The expence of this festival was computed at a crore and a half of rupees.

Condition of  
the three King-  
doms in the  
Deccan.

The first eight years of the reign of Shah Jehan were occupied with military operations in the Deccan. Thirty years had now elapsed since Akbar crossed the Nerbudda, and overran the kingdom of Ahmednugur, on which occasion he added to his titles that of king of the Deccan. The genius of Malik Amber had, however, succeeded in restoring the independence of the kingdom, together with much of its ancient power, but he had recently died, at the age of eighty. The king of Beejpore, Ibrahim Adil Shah, renowned for the grandeur of his edifices, had died about the same time, bequeathing a full treasury and an army of 200 000 men to his successor. The king of Golconda was engaged in extending his authority over his Hindoo neighbours to the east and south. Of all the acquisitions made by Akbar south of the Nerbudda, there remained to the crown of

Dellhi only the eastern half of Candesh, and the adjoining portion of Berar

War in the  
Deccan occa-  
sioned by the  
revolt of Khan  
Jehan Lodi,  
1609-1637

The war in the Deccan on which Shah Jehan now entered, and which continued for eight years, was occasioned by the revolt of Jehan Lodi. He was an Afghan of ignoble birth, but great ability and arrogance, who had raised himself to eminence

in the Mogul army, and obtained the office of governor of the Deccan, from which post he was removed to Malwa under the new reign. He was invited to court, and treated apparently with great distinction, but, having imbibed a suspicion that the emperor, to whom he was personally odious, had a design on his life, he quitted the capital abruptly with the troops which had accompanied him. He was immediately pursued, and overtaken on the banks of the Chumbul, and it was only with extreme difficulty that he was able to elude pursuit and reach the Deccan, but, having once reached it, he was joined by numerous adherents, and supported by the king of Ahmednugur. The emperor considered the revolt so serious as to order three armies, each consisting of 50,000 men, into the field, and even to proceed to the Deccan in person. Jehan Lodi was driven out of Ahmednugur by the Mogul force, and sought the aid of the king of Beejapore, which was peremptorily refused him. His friend, Shahjee, the Mahratta chieftain, considering his cause desperate, abandoned it, and joined the Moguls, for which act of treachery he was rewarded with a title of nobility. Meanwhile his allies, the Ahmednugur troops, were defeated by the Moguls at Dowlatabad, and Jehan Lodi, overwhelmed by the defection of his friends and the discomfiture of his allies, fled northward, in the hope of reaching Afghanistan, and rousing his countrymen, but he was brought to bay on the borders of Bundelkund, and, after performing prodigies of valour with the small body of 400 men who still adhered to his fallen fortunes, was struck dead by a Rajpoot, and his head sent as an acceptable offering to Shah Jehan.

Termination of  
the war in the  
Deccan.

The war with Ahmednugur did not, however, cease with the cause of it. The king, Mortiza Nizam, had fallen out with his minister, Fatch Khan, the son and successor of Malik Amber, and thrown him into prison, but, having experienced nothing but mortification in his struggle with the Moguls, released him, and restored him to power. The Abyssinian rewarded the kindness of his master by causing him and his adherents to be assassinated, and, having placed an infant on the vacant throne, offered his submission to the emperor. Meanwhile, the king of Beejapore, alarmed at the progress of the Mogul arms, determined to make common cause with Ahmednugur, and thus brought down the imperial armies on his own territories. It would be wearisome to go into a detail of all the intrigues, the treachery, and the vicissitudes which form the history of this period of five years. Suffices it to record that the war with Beejapore was conducted with varied fortunes, that the king baffled the Mogul generals by creating a desert for twenty miles around his capital and depriving their armies of food.



too late to afford him assistance, it is supposed that they formed a settlement in the neighbourhood of the great port of Satgong, at a place called Gohn, or Goh, the granary, afterwards corrupted to Hooghly, where they continued to flourish for a hundred years. Towards the close of the century they appear to have formed another and larger settlement at Chittagong, where Gonzales is said to have held the district around it in subjection with the help of a thousand Europeans, two thousand natives, and eighty ships. So formidable was his power, that the Mogul viceroy made Dacca the seat of his government, in order more effectually to check his progress. With the command of the only two ports of the Gangetic valley, the power of the Portuguese in Bengal during the sixteenth century must have been an object of no little alarm to the Mogul authorities.

**Hooghly** At Hooghly they had fortified their factory, and obtained the complete control of the commerce of the river, and the prosperity of Satgong began to wane under this rivalry. At the time when Shah Jehan, flying before Mohabet, in 1624, advanced from Masulpatam to Bengal, he besought the Portuguese chief at Hooghly, Michael Rodrigues, to assist him with some guns and artillerymen, but, as the governor had no confidence in the success of that rash enterprise, the request was refused. Six years afterwards when Shah Jehan had become emperor, a representation was made by the sobadar of Bengal that some European idolaters, who had been allowed to establish a factory in Bengal, had erected a fort and mounted it with cannon, and grown insolent and oppressive. Shah Jehan had not forgotten the repulse he received from Rodrigues at Hooghly in his adversity, and curtly replied, "Let the idolaters be immediately expelled from my dominions."

Capture of  
Hooghly 1632

The viceroy lost no time in investing Hooghly and finding that it could not be carried by storm undermined the defences. The great bastion was blown up, the Moguls rushed with fury into the breach, and slaughtered

more than a thousand Portuguese. Of three hundred vessels then in the river, it is stated that only three escaped. More than four thousand were made prisoners, the priests were forwarded to Delhi, and the most beautiful of the women reserved for the royal seraglio, the churches and images were demolished. By this blow, the power of the Portuguese in Bengal was irretrievably broken, and no vestige now remains of their former influence, save the few vocables they contributed to the language of the country, and the old church at Bandel, within sight of Hooghly, erected two centuries and a half ago. The Mogul viceroy directed that it should thenceforth be made the royal port of Bengal, all the public records and offices were removed to it from Satgong, and that city, which may be traced back to the days of the Cæsars, sunk into a little paper making hamlet.

Acquisition of  
Candahar 1637  
—A Merdan—  
His canal.

In the year 1637 the emperor was gladdened by the unexpected recovery of Candahar, which had been so often lost and gained by the family of Baber. Ali Merdan, the governor under the Persians, was driven into rebellion by the tyrannical proceedings of his sovereign, and made over the town and territory to the Moguls, after which he sought a refuge at the court of Delhi. He was received, as may well be supposed, with great honour by Shah Jehan, and subsequently employed in many military expeditions beyond the Indus. But his fame has been perpetuated in India by the great public works which he executed, and more especially by the canal, near Delhi, distinguished by his name, which has proved an incalculable blessing to the country it irrigates.

Military opera-  
tions beyond the  
Indus—1644-47

The military operations which were undertaken beyond the Indus, can scarcely be said to belong to the history of India. The emperors of the house of Baber retained the same ardent interest in all the political movements of the region from which they sprung, as the first and second George took in the fortunes of Hanover. India was, therefore, drained of men and money for the con-

quest or defence of those distant, and, as compared with India, unprofitable possessions. The son of the Uzbek ruler of Balkh had revolted against his father, the government was thrown into confusion and Shah Jehan, who had enjoyed seven years of repose, could not resist the temptation of again prosecuting the dormant rights of his family on that remote province. Ah Merdan was sent across the Indus with a large army, and ravaged Budukshan, but was constrained, by the severity of the winter, to retreat. Raja Jugut Sing was then sent to conduct the war with 14,000 Rajpoots, and never did the chivalry of that race of warriors, and their sympathy with a tolerant and just government, shine more conspicuously than in this expedition. Regardless of Hindoo prejudices, they crossed the Indus, and surmounted the Hindoo Kosh, and encountered the fiery valour of the Uzbeks in that frozen region. To be near the scene of operations, Shah Jehan took up his residence at Cabul. His third son, Aurungzebe was also employed in these operations, and at first gained a great victory, but was soon after obliged to retire upon Balkh, and then to make a most disastrous retreat to Cabul, with the loss of a great portion of his army. The emperor was at length induced calmly to weigh the policy of continuing an expensive war in that distant quarter, and he had the moral courage to relinquish the enterprize.

The Persians  
retook Candahar  
and three efforts  
made in vain to  
recover it, 1648

The repose gained by abandoning Balkh was, however, of short duration. Shah Abbas, the king of Persia, having now attained his majority, came down on Candahar and retook it, after a siege of two months. Shah Jehan was resolved to recover it, and the following year Aurungzebe invested it for four months, but without success. Two years after, the vizier as well as the prince again invested the town with a larger force but the attempt was a second time unsuccessful, and Aurungzebe was sent as viceroy to the Deccan. A third army was despatched in 1653, under prince Dara, the eldest son of the emperor, who was impatient to achieve success in

an expedition in which his ambitious brother had been twice foiled, but, though it set out at the precise moment which the royal astrologer had pronounced to be most auspicious, it was equally destined to disappointment. Thus terminated the third and last attempt of the Moguls to recover Candahar, of which they had held but a precarious possession since the days of Baber. The failure was followed by two years of repose, when Shah Jehan completed the revenue settlement in the Deccan, on which he had laboured for twenty years, and introduced the financial system of Toder Mull.

Renewal of the  
war in the  
Deccan, 1655.

The year 1655 marks the commencement of an important series of events,—the renewal of the war in the Deccan, which continued for fifty years to consume the resources of the Mogul empire, and served to hasten its downfall. During the twenty years of peace which followed the treaty with the king of Beejapore, in 1636, that prince had given his attention to the construction of those splendid palaces, mansoleums, and mosques which distinguished his reign, and to the conquest of the petty principalities in the Carnatic which had sprung out of the ruins of the Hindoo kingdom of Beejyanagur. The tribute which he exacted at the same time from the king of Golconda, had been paid with punctuality, and that prince had manifested every disposition to cultivate the friendship of the emperor. There was no cause of difference with these rulers, and Shah Jehan appeared to be completely satisfied with the relation they maintained with his throne. But in 1653, Aurungzebe, after his second repulse from Candahar, was appointed to the Deccan, and determined to obtain an indemnity for his disappointment in the subjugation of the two kingdoms of Beejapore and Golconda.

in the service of a diamond merchant who took him to Golconda, and bequeathed his business to him. The enterprising youth embarked in maritime trade, and amassed prodigious wealth and came to be held in high estimation for his talents and probity in every Mahomedan court in Asia. He entered the royal service of Golconda, and gradually rose to the supreme direction of affairs. He led an army to the south, and extended the authority of the king over the chiefs who yet enjoyed independence, and it was while absent on this expedition that his son, Mahomed Amin, by some supposed act of disrespect, incurred the displeasure of his sovereign.

After Joomla's  
A lack of G. I.  
son's ruin &  
son of the king  
1653

After Joomla solicited that consideration for his son which he considered his own services entitled him to, but meeting with a refusal, made an appeal to Aurungzebe which that prince was but

too happy to take up. Under his influence, Shah Jehan was induced to send a haughty message to Abdoolah to grant redress to the youth which the king answered by placing him in confinement, and confiscating his father's estates. An order was then sent to Aurungzebe from Delhi to enforce compliance by the sword, and he entered upon the execution of it with that craft which was the prominent feature of his character through life. He assembled a large army, giving out that he was about to proceed to Bengal to celebrate the marriage of his son with the daughter of his brother the viceroy of that province. He advanced towards Hyderabad with the most friendly professions, and the unsuspecting Abdoolah prepared to welcome him with a magnificent entertainment, when he found himself treacherously assailed by the Mogul army and constrained to seek refuge in the fortress of Golconda. A large portion of Hyderabad was burnt down, and the city subjected to indiscriminate plunder, by which the booty which Aurungzebe had destined to himself, fell to his soldiers. The king of Golconda, reduced to extremity by this sudden and unprovoked assault, was constrained to submit to the harsh terms imposed, by Aurungzebe,—that he

should bestow his daughter on one of his sons, with a rich dowry, and pay up a crore of rupees, as the first instalment of an annual tribute. Shah Jehan, who had a conscience, remitted one fifth of this sum, and, inviting Meer Joomla to Delhi, invested him with the office of vizier.

Ann. 1 on Dec  
Japore 165

Having thus reduced Colconda to submission, Aurungzebe resolved to attack Beejapore, and he had not long to wait for a pretext. Mihsomed Adil Shah died in 1656, and bequeathed the kingdom to his son, a youth of nineteen, who mounted the throne without paying that homage which the emperor pretended to consider due to him. It was, therefore, given out that the youth was illegitimate, and that it belonged to the emperor to nominate a successor. The war which arose on this unwarrantable claim was perhaps, a more violent and heinous aggression than any to be found in the darkest annals of India. Meer Joomla, as commander in chief, and Aurungzebe, as his lieutenant, suddenly invaded the territories of Beejapore. The Mahratta chieftains in the service of that state, quickly rallied round the throne, but the abruptness of the irruption, rendered it impossible to collect a sufficient force—a large portion of the army being absent in the Carnatic—or to resort to the usual means of defence. The forts of Beder and Koolbuiga were captured, the country was laid waste with fire and sword, and the capital was invested. The king made the most humble supplications, and offered to purchase peace by the payment of a crore of rupees, or any sacrifice the prince might demand, but every offer was sternly rejected. The extinction of the dynasty appeared inevitable, when an event occurred in the north, which gave it a respite of thirty years. News came posting down to the Deccan that the emperor was at the point of death, and that the contest for the empire had begun. Aurungzebe was obliged to hasten to the capital to look after his own interests, and the siege of Beejapore was raised.

The four sons of  
Shah Jehan  
Aurangzebe ad-  
vances to De hi,  
1657

Shah<sup>4</sup> Jehan had four sons, Dara, the eldest had been declared his successor, and admitted to a considerable share of the government. He had great talents for command, and an air of regal dignity, he was frank and brave, but haughty and rash. Soojah, the second son, the viceroy of Bengal, had been accustomed to civil and military command from his youth but was greatly addicted to pleasure. The third, Aurungzebe, was the most able and ambitious, as well as the most subtle and astute member of the family, while Morad, the youngest, though bold and generous, was little more than a mere sot. Dara was a free thinker of Akber's school, Aurungzebe was a bigoted Mahomedan, and contrived to rally the orthodox around him by stigmatizing his brother as an infidel. The claims of primogeniture had always been vague and feeble in the Mogul dynasty, and the power of the sword generally superseded every other right; when, therefore, four princes, each with an army at his command, equally aspired to the throne, a contest became inevitable.

Soojah takes the  
field, 1657

Soojah was the first in the field, and advanced from Bengal towards the capital. Morad the viceroy of Guzerat, on hearing of his father's illness seized the public treasure, and assumed the title of emperor. Aurungzebe, after having extracted a large supply of money from the king of Beejapore, granted him a peace, and advanced with his army to the northern boundary of his province. His object was to exhort Morad whom he saluted as emperor, and congratulated on his new dignity, declaring that as for himself his only desire was to renounce the world and proceed on pilgrimage to Mecca after he had liberated his father from the thralldom of the irreligious Dara. Morad was simple enough to believe these professions and united his army to that of Aurungzebe on the banks of the Nerbulda, when the two brothers advanced towards the capital.

Dara defeats  
Soojah Aurung-  
zebe is victo-  
rious, and de-  
poses Shah  
Jah, 1659

Dara prepared to meet both these attacks. He despatched *raja Jey Sing*, of Jeypore, to oppose Soojah, and *raja Jesswunt Sing* to encounter Aurungzebe. The selection of two Hindoo gene-  
rals to command the armies which were to decide

the fortunes of the Mogul throne affords strong evidence of the feelings of loyalty which the wise policy of Al bar had inspired. Just at this juncture Shah Jehan was restored to health and resumed the functions of government but it was too late to quench the elements of strife. The imperial force came up with Soojah at Benares and he was defeated and obliged to fly to Bengal. The united armies of Aurungzebe and Morad encountered Jesswunt Sing near Oojem, and defeated him and then advanced with 35,000 troops to the neighbourhood of Agra. Dara came out to meet them with a superior force, estimated at 100 000 foot, 20 000 horse, and 80 pieces of cannon. In the fierce and bloody battle which ensued Dara was completely overpowered and fled from the field with a remnant of barely 2 000 men. The victorious Aurungzebe entered the capital deposed his father, and assumed the whole power of the empire.

The character of Shah Jehan is aptly described by his native biographer. "Al bar was pre eminent as a warrior and as a lawgiver. Shah Jehan for the incomparable order, and arrangement of his finances and the internal administration of the empire." Though he drew a revenue of thirty crores of rupees annually from his dominions, which did not include the Deccan it is generally asserted that the country enjoyed greater prosperity during his reign than under any of his predecessors. It has therefore been characterized as the golden age of the Mogul dynasty. This is a significant fact, since this prosperity cannot be attributed to any enlightened policy, or to any encouragement given by the emperor to the pursuits of industry, it was owing simply to that respite from the ravages of war which afforded the provinces within the Indus scope for the development of their



resources Shah Jehan was unquestionably the most magnificent prince of the house of Baber, and perhaps of any other Mahomedan dynasty. The pomp of his court, and the costliness of all his establishments almost stagger our belief, but with a treasury which received 600 crores of rupees during twenty years of peace, what might not a monarch do, who had only his own will to consult? In nothing was the splendour of his taste more manifest than in his buildings. It was he who founded the new city of Delhi, in which his castellated palace, with its spacious courts and marble halls, and gilded domes, was the most attractive object. Of that palace the noblest ornament was the far famed peacock throne blazing with emeralds rubies, diamonds, and the most costly stones, the value of which was estimated by a European jeweller and traveller at six crores of rupees. To him the country was indebted for the immaculate Taj Mehal the mausoleum of his Queen the pride of India and the admiration of the world. But all his establishments were managed with such circumspection, that after defraying the cost of his expeditions beyond the Indus, and maintaining an army of 200 000 horse, he left in his treasury, according to his native historian, a sum not short of twenty four crores of rupees.

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## CHAPTER VI

### AURUNGZEBE 1658—1707

Accession of  
Aurangzeb  
his conduct to  
wards his three  
brothers, 1658

AURUNGZEBE having thus obtained possession of the capital and the treasury, threw off the mask. He no longer talked of a pilgrimage to Mecca, but at once assumed all the powers of government, and took the title of Alunggeer, the Lord of the

World His father was placed in captivity in his own palace, yet treated with the highest respect, but though he survived this event seven years, his reign ended with his confinement Aurungzebe did not, however, consider himself secure while there was a single relative left, who might disturb his tranquillity As he had now no further use for Morad, he invited him to an entertainment, and allowed him to drink himself into a state of helplessness, when he was taken up and conveyed to the fortress of Agra Dara, after his defeat near Agra, had escaped to the Punjab, where, with the resources of that province and of Afghanistan, he might possibly have made a stand had not Aurungzebe pursued him with promptitude, and obliged him to retreat to Mooltan, and thence to Guzerat The emperor then quitted the pursuit, and hastened to encounter his brother Soorj, who was advancing a second time from Bengal to contest the throne The battle between the brothers was fought near Allahabad, when Aurungzebe was for a time placed in extreme peril, by the treachery of rya Jeeswunt Sing, who, in a fit of disappointment, had come to an accommodation with Soorj, and suddenly fell on the emperor's baggage The constancy and valour of Aurungzebe, however, restored the day At one period of the engagement his elephant became unmanageable from its wounds and the emperor was on the point of descending from his seat when Meer Joomla, who was by his side, exclaimed, "you descend from the throne," on which the legs of the animal were bound, and Aurungzebe continued to animate his troops by his presence Soorj was completely defeated, and the emperor returned to Delhi, leaving his own son Mahomed, and Meer Joomla, to follow up the victory They pursued the prince to Monghur, and from thence to Rajmahal, which he had made his capital and adorned with noble edifices, but his pursuers gave him no respite and hunted him down to Dacca, and then out of Bengal He took refuge, at length, with the King of Arracan, by whom he and his whole family were barbarously murdered.

illness, and the edifice of his greatness, reared by so many crimes, was threatened with sudden destruction. While he lay helpless on his couch the court began to be filled with intrigues. One party espoused the cause of his son, Muazzam, another that of Akbar. Jeeswunt Sing was advancing from Jondhpore, and Mohahet from Cabul, to liberate and restore Shah Jehan, but Aurungzebe having passed the crisis of his disease, caused himself to be propped up in his bed, and summoned the officers of his court to renew their homage to him. His recovery dissolved the various projects to which his illness had given birth, and Muazzam had to wait forty five years for the crown.

Meer Joomla's  
expedition to  
Assam, and his  
death, 1662.

A short time previous to the illness of the emperor, Meer Joomla, who had been appointed viceroy of Bengal, on the expulsion of Soojah, entered upon his unfortunate expedition to Assam, in the hope of adding that kingdom to the Mogul dominions. He assembled a large army and conveyed it up the Berhampooter in boats. The capital of the province having been mastered without difficulty, he sent a pompous despatch to the emperor with a report of his success, promising in the following year to plant the Mogul standard in the rich empire of China. The emperor was delighted with the prospect of treading in the footsteps of his renowned ancestor, Jenghis Khan, and ordered large reinforcements to Bengal. But a sad reverse was impending. The rains set in with extraordinary violence, the Berhampooter rose beyond its usual level, and the whole of the country was flooded, the supplies of the army were cut off, a pestilence, probably the Asiatic cholera, broke out in the camp, and Meer Joomla was obliged to retreat in haste and disgrace from the country pursued by the exasperated Assamese. On his return to Bengal, he expired at Dacca, leaving behind him the reputation of one of the ablest statesmen, and of the greatest generals of that stirring period. Aurungzebe conferred all his titles on his son, Mahomed Amin, the youth who had been disgraced by the *king of Golconda*, and in the

levies among their own hardy countrymen, each one commanding his own muster of free lances. Jaygeers, or lands given for maintaining a body of troops, were frequently granted for their support. Titles were likewise conferred upon many of the Mahratta chieftains, but they were generally ancient Hindoo appellations. Towards the close of the sixteenth century, seven Mahratta chiefs are enumerated as being ranged under the banner of Beejapore, and two—but of superior importance—under that of Ahmednugur. It was the wars which raged for a century in the Deccan, between the Kistna and the Taptee, that first taught the Mahrattas their own importance, and paved the way for their future pre-eminence, but it was chiefly under Malik Amber that they made the most rapid strides towards political influence. A community of village clerks and husbandmen was thus transformed into a nation of warriors, and only required the appearance of some master spirit to raise it to empire. That spirit appeared in Sevajee.

Origin of Shah

Jee, the father of Sevajee.

Mallojee Bhonslay, an active captain of horse, was employed about the year 1600 in the service of the king of Ahmednugur. His wife, who had long been childless, offered her prayers and vows at the Mahomedan shrine of Shah Saffer, and the child to whom she gave birth was named Shahjee in gratitude to the saint. He was born in 1591, and his father sought an alliance in the patrician family of Jadow Rao. In after times, when the Mahrattas had become the arbiters of India, the national historians endeavoured to trace the family of Mallojee from the rajas of Cluttore, who claimed to be the lineal descendants of the great deified hero, Ramu, but at this period Jadow Rao spurned the alliance of so plebeian a family. Soon after Mallojee suddenly came into possession of a large treasure, acquired, doubtless, in the Mahratta mode, and he obtained from the venal court of Ahmednugur the jaygeers of Poona, Sora, and several other places. No further objection was raised to the alliance, and the nuptials are said to have been graced by the presence of the

king of Ahmednugur\*. On the death of his father, in 1620, Shahjee succeeded to the *jygeer*, and augmented his military force and importance, and entered into a close connection with Malik Amber. Nine years after, we find him espousing the cause of Jehan Lodi, but when the fortunes of that Afghan chief appeared to be on the wane, he deserted his cause and joined the Moguls, for which he was rewarded with the nominal honour of a commander of 5,000, and the substantial boon of a confirmation of his *jygeer*. But Shahjee was speedily disgusted with the shuffling policy of the Mogul commanders, and again changed sides.

Placed a prince on the throne of Ahmednugur 1634 On the capture of the young prince of Ahmednugur, in 1634, he considered himself strong enough to aspire to the regency, and raised another prince to the throne as the lawful heir of Nizam Shah. For three years he appears to have maintained a desultory warfare with the imperial generals, but was at length driven out of the country and obliged to seek refuge in the court of Beejapore, where his ability was known and appreciated; and he was entrusted with the command of an expedition to the Carnatic. His zeal and success were rewarded with the grant of extensive *jygeers* in Bangalore, and the neighbouring districts where he conceived the design of establishing an independent Hindoo sovereignty, and resigned the petty *jygeer* of Poona to his son Sevajee.

Birth and early life of Sevajee, 1627 Sevajee, the founder of the Mahratta empire, was born in 1627, and was sent, three years after, to reside with his mother at Poona, under the tutelage of Dadajee Punt—his father having taken a second wife. Dadajee managed the estate with the strictest economy as well as fidelity, and remitted the revenue with punctuality to Shahjee, but contrived to reserve a small sum annually at Poona. He watched over his youthful charge with assiduity, and is said to have given him an education suited to his station and prospects. Sevajee, however, was never able to read or write, but he was skilled in the use of

bow and the sword, and the weapons employed in the hills, he was expert in all manly exercises, and, like his countrymen, an accomplished horseman. His tutor did not neglect his religious instruction, and Sevajee grew up a devout and rigid Hindoo, with a profound veneration for brahmins, and a hearty hatred of Mahomedans. His imagination was excited in youth by the perusal of the great epic poems of India, and he longed to emulate the exploits which are immortalized in them. At the age of sixteen he formed an association with youths of wild and lawless habits, and engaged in hunting or marauding expeditions, which made him familiar with all the paths and defiles of the tract which became the cradle of his power. Having trained the inhabitants of his native glens—the Mawulkees—to arms and discipline, he began his career of ambition at the age of nineteen, by capturing Torna, a hill fort of very difficult access. In the succeeding year he erected a new fortress, to which he gave the name of Rugur. These proceedings did not fail to excite observation at Deeyapore, and letters were sent to Shihjee in the Carnatic calling him to account for the doings of his son, but he replied that he had not been consulted by him, though he could not doubt that they were intended to improve the rygeer. At the same time he remonstrated with Dadjee on the conduct of Sevajee, and the tutor failed not to reprimand his pupil, but, finding that he was bent on pursuing a course which appeared likely to injure the prospects of the family, fell a prey to anxiety. As his end approached he is said to have called Sevajee to his death bed, and urged him to continue the career on which he had entered, to protect brahmins, kine, and cultivators, and preserve the temples of the gods from violation.

Sevajee begins  
his career by cap-  
turing Torna,  
1648

and in the course of two years extended his authority over thirty miles of territory. He attacked a convoy of treasure proceeding to Beejapore, and carried off three lacs of pagodas to his ctry in the mountains. In quick succession it was announced that he had captured seven other forts and had moreover surprised the governor of Cullhan, and extorted the surrender of all his fortresses. The audacity of these proceedings raised the indignation of the Beejapore court and Shahjee who managed all their recent acquisitions in the Carnatic, was held responsible for the proceedings of his son, though he pleaded, and with truth, that he had long ceased to possess any influence over his movements. Shahjee was treacherously seized by the Mahratta chief of Ghorepuray and brought a prisoner to the capital, where he was threatened with a cruel death. To procure his release, Sevajee then only twenty two memorialized the emperor, and offered to enter the imperial service and it is not improbable that Shahjee owed his life to the representations made by the court of Delhi. He was however detained for four years as a hostage until the increasing disorders in the Carnatic conquests constrained the king of Beejapore to restore the government of them to him. During his father's detention Sevajee discreetly suspended his incursions but on hearing of his release resumed his predatory and ambitious course and by an act of base treachery murdered the brother chieftains of Jaolee and appropriated their lands to himself.

Sevajee's intercourse with Aurungzebe, 1657

While Aurungzebe was engaged in the war with Beejapore, in 1657, Sevajee entered into correspondence with him and professed himself a devoted servant of the throne of Delhi. He was thus enabled to obtain a confirmation of the territory he had wrested from Beejapore and was encouraged to farther encroachments. But not sooner had Aurungzebe marched towards Delhi than Sevajee began to ravage the Mogul territories and carried off three lacs of pagodas from the town of Joonere. For the more distant enterprizes to which

he aspired, he felt the necessity of an efficient body of horse, and he now began to make the most vigorous efforts to organize that light cavalry, which subsequently became the scourge of Hindostan. About the same time he enlisted his first body of Mahomedan troops, taking into his pay 700 Patans who had been unwisely discharged from the service of Bejapore, but he took the precaution of placing them under the command of a Mahratta officer. The success of Aurungzebe's efforts to obtain the throne gave just alarm to Serajee, who sent an envoy to Delhi to express his deep regret for what had occurred, and his attachment to the throne, and he had the effrontery to offer to protect the imperial territories during the emperor's absence, asking only for the transfer of the Concan to himself. Aurungzebe, conceiving that the security of the Mogul districts would be promoted by giving encouragement to Serajee, consented to his taking possession of the Concan. He lost no time in sending an army to occupy the province but his troops were defeated with great slaughter, and he experienced the first reverse he had sustained since the beginning of his career.

The Concan  
ceded to him  
his first reverse,  
1639

The court of Bejapore was at length roused to a sense of the danger arising from the incessant encroachments of this aspiring chief, and Afzul Khan was sent against him with 12 000 horse and foot, and a powerful artillery, consisting of swivels mounted on camels, rockets, and other ordnance. He was a vain, conceited noble, and manifested the greatest contempt for his antagonist. Serajee determined to defeat the object of the expedition by treachery. He professed the humblest submission to the King of Bejapore, and offered to surrender all his territories, if he might but be allowed to hope for pardon and acceptance. Afzul Khan was thrown off his guard by these artifices, and agreed to meet the Mahratta chief with only a single attendant. The Mahomedan army was stationed at a distance, but Serajee, acquainted as he was with the

Afzul Khan is  
sent against him,  
and murdered,  
1639



mountain defiles, placed a select body of Mahrattas in ambuscade. Having performed his religious devotions with great fervour, he advanced to the interview with all humility, and while in the act of embracing Afzul Khao, plunged a concealed weapon in his bowels, and despatched him with his dagger. The troops of the murdered general, thus taken by surprise, were surrounded and defeated, and the whole of the camp, equipage, including 4,000 horses, fell to the victor. The success of this stratagem, notwithstanding the atrocity of the deed, served to exalt the character of Sevajee in the opinion of his countrymen, and greatly improved his position. He followed up this victory by the capture of numerous forts, and plundered the country up to the very gates of Beejapore.

Sevajee is reconciled to the king of Beejapore 1662.

The king now took the field in person, and succeeded in regaining many of the forts and much of the territory he had lost. The war was protracted with various success for two years, but the balance of benefit remained with the Mahratta. A reconciliation was soon after effected between the parties, chiefly, as historians conjecture, through the mediation of Shihjee, who had paid his son a visit. It will be remembered, that in 1619, Shihjee was betrayed to the king of Beejapore by the Mahratta chief, Ghorepuray. On that occasion, he wrote to Sevajee — "If you are my son, you must punish Bajee Ghorepuray of Moodhole." Thirteen years had elapsed since that act of treachery, but Sevajee had not forgotten his father's injunction. During the war with Beejapore, he learned that his enemy had proceeded to Moodhole with a slender escort, and he resolved not to lose this opportunity of avenging his family wrongs. He appeared suddenly before the town, captured and burned it to the ground, and with one exception, slaughtered the whole of the family and adherents of Ghorepuray, even to the infants in the womb. Shihjee was delighted on hearing of this vindictive exploit, and resolved to visit his son, whom he had not seen for twenty years. He was received with the

highest distinction, and Sevajee attended him on foot for twelve miles. Shalhjee congratulated him on the progress he had made towards the establishment of a Hindoo power, and encouraged him to persevere. On his return, he was entrusted with presents for the king of Beejapore, which served as a peace offering and led to a treaty. At this period, Seva-

jee, in his thirty fifth year, was in possession of the whole coast of the Concan, from Calhan to Goa, extending about four degrees of latitude, and or the ghats, from the Beema to the Wurda about 130 mile in length and 100 in breadth. His army which consisted of 50 000 foot and 7,000 horse was out of all proportion to the territory under his authority, but he was incessantly engaged in war, and he made war support itself by exactions.

Sevajee being now at peace with Beejapore, let loose his plundering hordes on the Mogul territories, in utter violation of his engagements with Aurungzebe, and swept the country up to the suburbs of Aurungabad. The emperor appointed Shaista Khan his own maternal uncle, and the nephew of Noor Jehan viceroy of the Deccan with orders to chastise this aggression and carry the war into the Mahratta domain. Shaista captured Poona, and took up his residence in the very house where Sevajee had passed his childhood and Sevajee conceived the design of assassinating him in his bed. A Mahratta foot soldier in the imperial service whom he had gained got up a marriage procession, which Sevajee joined in disguise and was enabled to enter the town with thirty of his followers in the suite. After nightfall, when the town was dark and quiet he proceeded unperceived to the palace with every corner of which he was familiar and suddenly fell on its inmates. The viceroy awaking suddenly from sleep, escaped with the loss only of a finger, but his son, and most of his guards were cut down. Sevajee, foiled in his chief object the destruction of the viceroy, retired before the troops could be assembled and was seen returning to his encampment amidst a blaze of torches.

Shaista Khan  
sent to repress  
Sevajee, 1662.

Extent of Seva-  
jee's possessions  
in 1660.

This daring exploit, so congenial with the national character, was regarded with greater exultation by his own countrymen than his most splendid victories. Shrusta Khan was soon after recalled and sent to govern Bengal, and the Rajpoot raja Jesswant Sing, the governor of Guzerat, who was left in command was little disposed to push matters to extremity against men of his own faith.

Sevaje's attacks  
Surat, 1654

The operations of Sevajee, which had hitherto been limited to the neighbourhood of the ghauts, were now extended to a more remote and a bolder enterprise. The city of Surat, a hundred and fifty miles distant from Poona, was at that period the greatest emporium of the western coast of India. The annual importation of gold and silver from Arabia and Persia alone amounted to fifty lacs of rupees, and two families in the town were accounted the richest mercantile houses in the world. It was, moreover, considered pre-eminently the post of the Mogul empire, where all the devout Mahomedans, official and private, from the various provinces which yielded a revenue of thirty millions a year, embarked on pilgrimage for Mecca. Sevajee is said to have visited the city in disguise, and during four days marked the houses of the most opulent for plunder. Taking with him 4,000 of his newly raised horse, he appeared suddenly before the town, which was ill fortified, and having deliberately plundered it for six days, returned leisurely to his capital at Raigur. He met with no resistance except from the European factories. Sir George Oxenden, the English chief at Surat, defended the property of his masters, and also that of the natives, with such valour and success as to obtain the applause of Aurungzebe, as well as a perpetual exemption from some of the duties exacted of other merchants. This was the first occasion on which English and native troops came into contact with each other, and the result filled both Mahomedans and Hindoos with astonishment. On his return from this expedition, Sevajee heard of the death of his father, at the age of seventy, and immediately assumed the

Death of Shah  
Jan, 1654.

title of raja, and began to strike the coin in his own name. At the period of his death Shahjee was in possession not only of the extensive jaygeers around Bangalore which he had received from the raja of Beejapore but of Arnee, Porto Novo, and Tanjore, in the south of the peninsula, which he had subjugated, and, in consideration of his fidelity to the state, had been permitted to retain.

Sevajee, finding that his power would not be complete unless he could command the sea as well as the land, had been engaged for some time in creating a fleet. While his troops were employed in ravaging the Mogul territories up to the walls of Ahmednugur, his ships were capturing Mogul vessels bound to Mecca, and exacting heavy ransoms from the rich pilgrims embarked on them. In February, 1663, he secretly drew a large fleet together at Malwan, consisting of eighty eight vessels, of which three were large ships of three masts and the remainder of from 30 to 150 tons burden. Having embarked with 4 000 troops, he proceeded to Barcelore a hundred and thirty miles south of Goa, which had long been considered one of the greatest marts of commerce on the western coast, but has now disappeared even from the map. There he obtained immense booty and returned to his capital before it was known that he had embarked. This was the first expedition at sea which he headed in person, it was also his last, for a violent gale drove his vessel down the bay he suffered seriously from sea sickness, and his spiritual guide assured him that this was the mode in which his tutelar deity had manifested his displeasure at such a heterodox enterprise.

On his return from this voyage Sevajee found that a powerful Mogul army, commanded by the renowned raja Jey Sing and Dilere Khan, the Afghan general, had entered his territories. Aurungzebe, who was an intense bigot, felt greater indignation at the interruption of the holy pilgrims proceeding to the Prophet's tomb

Sevajee plans  
to plunder  
Barcelore,  
1664.

Sevajee submits  
to Aurungzebe,  
1665.

than at the assumption of the title of raja, the plunder of Surat, the coinage of money, or any other aggression of Sevajee. On this occasion Sevajee was attacked with the greatest impetuosity by the imperial generals, and felt his inability to cope with an army so greatly superior to his own. He was, therefore, induced to call a council of his officers, at which he appeared the most irresolute of all, and it was resolved to enter into negotiations with the enemy. They ended in the Convention of Poorunder, by which he engaged to restore all the forts and districts he had taken from the Moguls, with the exception of twelve, which, with the territory around them, yielding a revenue of a lac of pagodas a year, he was to hold as a jagder dependent on the emperor. But he dexterously inserted a clause which would have overbalanced all his losses. In lieu of some pretended claims on the old Nizam Shallee state, he asked for certain assignments which he termed the *chout*, and the *sur-lesh mookhee* on some of the Beojapore districts above the ghats, the charge of collecting which he offered to take on himself. This is the first mention in history of the celebrated claim of the *chout*, or fourth of the revenue, which the Mahrattas subsequently marched over India to enforce. So anxious was Sevajee to get the principle of these exactions admitted, that he offered a pesheush or donative of forty lacs of pagodas—nearly a million sterling—to be paid by annual instalments, and engaged to maintain an additional body of troops for the emperor's service. In the letter which Aurungzebe wrote to him on this occasion he confirmed all the stipulations of the convention, but made no allusion to the *chout* or *sur-lesh mookhee*, probably because he did not comprehend the insidious tendency or even the import of these barbarous terms. But Sevajee chose to consider the silence of the emperor as an acknowledgment of these claims, which from this time forward, it became the paramount object of Mahratta policy to extend to every province.

Sevajee, having now entered the emperor's service,

Sevajee attacks  
Beejapore, and  
re-takes Delhi,  
1666

joined the imperial army with 2,000 horsemen and 8,000 foot, and marched against Beejapore

The Mahratta horse in the service of Beejapore,—a portion of which was commanded by Vencajee, the half-brother of Sevajee,—greatly distinguished themselves in this war, nor were the Mahrattas in the service of the emperor less conspicuous for their valour. Aurungzebe wrote a complimentary letter to Sevajee, inviting him to court, and he proceeded to Delhi with an escort of 1,500 horse and foot. The emperor had now an opportunity of converting a formidable foe into a zealous adherent, but, either he had not the tact of conciliation, or his pride rendered him blind to his interests. Sevajee found himself treated with wanton insult, and presented at the durbar in company with nobles of the third rank. He left the imperial presence burning with indignation, and asked leave to return to his jaygeer. But the object of the emperor was to detain him and his residence was beleaguered and all his movements watched, he contrived however to elude the vigilance of the emperor's guards, and escaped in a basket, and reached his own dominions in the disguise of a pilgrim in December, 1666

Aurangzebe's  
re-tal on  
Sevajee's revolt  
policy 1666-67

The raja Jesswunt Sing, and prince Muazzim were sent to command in the Deccan,—the Mahomedan fond of pleasure, and the Hindoo of money

Sevajee gratified the avrice of the raja with large gifts, and through him was enabled to make his peace with the emperor, who made an addition to his territories and conferred on him the title of raja. The Mahratta manuscripts ascribe this unexpected lenity on the part of the emperor to the design he cherished of again decoying Sevajee into his power. About the same time a treaty was concluded between the king of Beejapore and Aurungzebe, by which the former ceded the fort and territory of Selapore, yielding near two lacs of pagodas a year. Sevajee now prepared to enforce his claim of *chout* on the districts of Beejapore, alluded to in the Convention of Poorunder, but the viceroy of that state purchased

exemption by agreeing to an annual payment of three lacs of rupees. Some agreement of a similar character appears to have been entered into by the minister of Golconda for a sum of five lacs of rupees. Having now a season of greater leisure than he had hitherto enjoyed, Sevajee employed the years 1668 and 1669 in revising and completing the internal arrangements of his government. There is nothing which gives us so high an opinion of his genius as the spirit of wisdom which pervades his civil polity. It is impossible to behold without the greatest admiration, a rough soldier, who was unable to read or write, and who had for twenty years been simply a captain of banditti, establishing a system of administration so admirably adapted to the consolidation of a great kingdom. His military organization, which was distinguished for its vigorous discipline and its rigid economy, was equally suited to the object of creating a new and predominant power in Hindostan.

Prosperity of  
Aurangzebe and  
his people,  
1666—0

This was also the most prosperous period of Aurangzebe's long reign. The empire was at peace. His father Shah Jehan had recently sunk into the grave, and there was no longer any dread of projects for his restoration. The emperor was held in the highest respect throughout the Mahomedan world, and received tokens of deference from the most distant sovereigns. The Scheriff of Mecca, the Khan of the Uzbeks, the king of Abyssinia, and even the sovereign of Persia, had sent complimentary embassies to Delhi. But the restless ambition of Aurangzebe again kindled the flames of war, which continued to rage without the intermission of a single year through the period of thirty seven years to which his reign was prolonged. Finding it impossible to inveigle Sevajee into his power, and knowing that his general Jesswant Sing was inactive under the influence of Mahratta gold, he issued the most peremptory orders to seize him and some of his principal officers threatening vengeance for neglect. Sevajee, seeing hostilities inevitable, prepared for the conflict with the most determined reso-

tion. He opened the campaign by the capture of Singurh, a fortress deemed inaccessible to an enemy, but which his general Maloosray escalated with his mountaineers, the Ma wullees, and fell in the moment of victory. Sevajee rewarded every private soldier with a silver bangle. Poorunder, a fortress of equal strength and importance, was also recovered. With an army of 14,000 men he again plundered Surat, and again the factors of the East India Company covered themselves with renown by the gallantry of their defence. One of Sevajee's generals overran the province of Candesh, and for the first time levied the *chout* from a Mogul district. The most remarkable circumstance attending this distant invasion was the exaction of a written document from the village authorities, in which they engaged to pay one fourth of the government dues to Sevajee, or to his officers. Sevajee, on his part, engaged to furnish them with regular receipts, which would exempt them from future pillage and ensure them protection.

Jinjeerah made  
over to the  
Moguls, 1671

The great naval arsenal of the Beejapore state was the port of Jinjeerah, and it was under the command of an Abyssinian admiral. It had long been the earnest desire of Sevajee to obtain possession of this important harbour, and he had besieged it annually for nine years, but, owing to the inferiority of his artillery, had invariably failed. In 1670 he again brought his whole force against it, but was again baffled. He endeavoured to seduce the admiral from his allegiance by large offers, but three of the subordinate officers of the port, who were personally obnoxious to Sevajee and detested the very name of Marhatta, imprisoned the admiral, and placed both the arsenal and the fleet under the protection of the Moguls. This was a severe blow to the projects of Sevajee, as it strengthened his most formidable and inveterate foes, the Sedees of Jinjeerah, by enabling them to obtain reinforcements from Surat, which rendered the port impregnable. Meanwhile, the emperor, dissatisfied with the inactivity of his son Murazzim, sent



Mohabet Khan, with an army of 40,000 men to the Deccan. Sevjee had always avoided a pitched battle with the superior forces of the Moguls, but on this occasion he boldly resolved to try conclusions with them in the open field. The result was the most complete victory the Mahiratts had ever gained, and no trifling increase of their confidence. The attention of the emperor was soon after drawn to Afghanistan, and the war with Sevjee languished.

Aurangzebe in the Khyber 1673. The turbulent Khybercees and Eusufzees, the perpetual enemies of peace and order, had again broken out in open revolt. They had defeated Mahomed Amin, the son of Meer Joomla, and destroyed his army in the passes, —subsequently rendered memorable by the annihilation of a British army,—and obliged him to redeem his women and children by a heavy ransom. The emperor determined at first to undertake the subjugation of these incorrigible highlanders in person, and marched with a large force as far as Hussun Abdal, but soon after transferred the command of the expedition, in which little glory was to be reaped, to his son. The war occupied two years, and the emperor was at length happy to terminate it by accepting the nominal submission of the tribes. On his return to Delhi he found himself suddenly involved in a most formidable difficulty arising from a most insignificant cause.

Revolt of the  
Sutnaramees,  
1676

A sect of Hindoo devotees, called Sutnaramees, living in the town of Narnoul, agriculturists by profession but always bearing arms, were thrown into a state of extreme excitement by the violence of a police soldier. The emeute gradually grew into a revolt. The devotees assembled by thousands, and being joined by some disaffected zemindars and men of note, defeated a body of troops sent against them. The provinces of Agra and of Ajmere were thrown into commotion, and the imperial army shrunk from collision with enthusiasts, who were said to possess the magical power of resisting bullets. The tact of Aurangzebe at length succeeded in putting down a rebellion which threatened his empire. He

caused texts of the Koran to be written on slips of paper and attached to his standard, and his troops, now believing themselves protected from the spells of the enemy, obtained an easy victory.

This event would scarcely be worthy of notice, but for the disastrous results which sprung from it. Akbar and his two successors had adopted the liberal and sound policy of reconciling the Hindoos to the Mogul power by granting them religious liberty and equality. During a century of toleration the Rajpoot chiefs became the firmest supporters of the Mogul throne. But the bigotted Aurangzeb entertained a strong religious hatred of all infidels, though from motives of policy, he still continued to employ Rajpoot troops, as a counterpoise to his Mahomedan soldiers and had formed two family alliances with Rajpoot princesses. From the beginning of his reign, all his measures had breathed a spirit of intolerance, but it was not till his feelings were embittered by the want of success in the Khyber, and the revolt of the Hindoo devotees, that he entered upon a systematic persecution of the Hindoos. He issued an edict forbidding all governors any longer to receive Hindoos into the public service and ordered the *jizya*, or poll tax, to be imposed on all who were not Mahomedans. The tax was odious, not so much from its pressure, being less than three quarters per cent. on income, as from its being a 'tax on infidel' and a token of religious degradation. On going to prayers at the mosque after this edict, his way was blocked up by suppliants whom his guards were ordered to disperse, and many of whom were trampled to death by his horses and elephants. After this example of severity, the tax was sulkily submitted to. So severe was the persecution, that not only were the pagodas destroyed throughout Bengal but in the holy city of Benares, the sanctuary of Hindooism the most sacred temples were demolished and mosques erected on the ruins, while the images were used as steps for the faithful to tread on.

Aurangzeb persecutes the  
Hindoos, 1677

Revolt of the  
Rajpoots 1678

These violent proceedings produced great disaffection in every province, but no open revolt, except in Rajpootana, and for the Rajpoots the emperor had no sympathy. His father and grandfather were, indeed, the offspring of Rajpoot princesses, but he himself was of unmixed Tartar blood. It was not, however, till after the death of the two celebrated Mahratta generals who had been the prop of the throne, raja Joy Sing, of Jeypore, and raja Jesswunt Sing, of Joudhpore, that Aurungzebe ordered the jezzias to be imposed on his Hindoo subjects. Jesswunt Sing had recently died in the imperial service at Cabul, and his widow had returned to Delhi with her two sons, on her way to their native country. Aurungzebe, anxious to detain this children as hostages, surrounded their encampment with his troops, but Doorga Dass, the faithful servant of the family, extricated them by the most ingenious contrivances from the toils of the emperor, and conveyed them in safety to their own capital. The insult thus inflicted on this noble house served to rouse the indignation of the Rajpoots, and, with the exception of the raja of Jeypore, who was bound to the imperial family by many intermarriages, the whole of Rajpootana was in a blaze. The emperor lost no time in marching into the country, and constrained the rana of Oodypore to make his submission. Favourable terms were granted to him, and a cession of territory was accepted in lieu of the poll tax. But soon after he took up arms again, and Aurungzebe, exasperated by this renewed opposition to his wishes, summoned troops from every part of India, even from the province of Bengal, and let them loose on this unhappy country. The prince was again driven to the mountains, the women and children were carried into captivity, and the country was consumed by fire and sword. The alienation of the Rajpoots from the Moguls was now complete. After this period they were often at peace with Aurungzebe and his successors, and furnished their contingents of troops, and accepted the government of provinces, but that cordial attachment which had made them the bulwarks of the empire for

more than a hundred years, was gone. During this war with the Rajpoots, the embarrassments of the emperor were increased by the defection of his son, prince Akhar, who went over to the enemy and advanced suddenly upon the imperial camp with an army of 70 000. Aurungzebe was in imminent danger of being captured with his slender escort, but with his accustomed craft he succeeded in sowing dissensions among the adherents of the prince, who found himself generally deserted, and sought refuge with the Mahrattas, accompanied by the faithful Doorga Dass, and 500 Rajpoots.

To return now to the progress of Sevajee. In 1672 he appears to have proceeded on a secret expedition to Golconda, and extracted nine lacs of pagodas from the king. While Aurungzebe was employed in Afghanistan, he took advantage of the death of the king of Beejapore and the weakness of a minority, to annex the whole of the Concan and the adjoining ghauts, with the exception of the ports held by the English, Portuguese, and Abyssinians. He had long struck the coin in his own name, and he now determined to proclaim his independence and assume all the ensigns of royalty. After many religious solemnities, on the auspicious day fixed by the brahmins the 6th of June, 1674 he was enthroned at Paurgur, and announced himself as the "ornament of the Khsetryu race, the lord of the royal umbrella,"—the *chitru putee* of modern India, the *satrap* of ancient Persia. In accordance with the custom of oriental princes he was weighed against gold, and the money was distributed amongst the brahmins to the amount of 16,000 pagodas, for, to their chagrin, he was found to weigh only ten stoucs. The next year he sent an army for the first time across the Nerbulda, and ravaged the province of Guzerat.

In the year 1676 he undertook one of the most extraordinary expeditions recorded in Indian history, whether we regard the boldness or the success of the design. It was directed to the recovery of the paternal jaygeer, held by his half brother Vencajee, as a vassal

Sevajee's expenses  
from 1674 to the  
Caracoe, 16 8.

of Beerpore, and the extension of his conquests in the south of India. Having bribed the Mogul general Khan Jehan who directed the operations against him, and obtained an armistice, he made the most judicious provision for the protection of his forts until his return. At the close of 1676 he marched to Golconda with a force of 30 000 horse and 40 000 foot and, through the medium of the chief minister, a Mahratta entered into a compact with the sovereign, who engaged on his part to cover Sevajee's territories during his absence, while Sevajee agreed to grant him a moiety of all his conquests, with the exception of the paternal estates. After a month of negotiation and the receipt of a large supply of money and artillery, he sent forward his army and proceeded himself to pay his devotions at the celebrated shrine of Purvuttun. Naked and covered with ashes he assumed the guise of a Hindoo jogee or devotee, and having for nine days committed various acts of superstitious folly, which at one time alarmed his attendants for his sanity, resumed the command of the army, and marched by Madras in the beginning of May. Fort after fort was surrendered to him, but the most extraordinary exploit of this expedition was the capture of Gingee, the inaccessible fortress of the south, "tenable by ten men against any force that could be brought against it." He had now advanced six hundred miles from his own capital, and at Trivandee had an interview with his brother, Vencajee who held Tanjore and the other territories bequeathed to him by Shahjee. These domains he refused to share with Sevajee, who thereupon took forcible possession of the whole of the jaygeer, while his horse ranged through the Carnatic and subjected it to plunder wherever the exaction of the *chout* was resisted, but no portion of either land or money did he allot according to his agreement, to the king of Golconda. Meanwhile the Moguls attacked that state, and Sevajee having come to an understanding with his Tanjore brother returned to his own dominions and reached Rugur in the middle of 1678, after an absence of eighteen months.

Attack of Beeja-  
pore, 1679.

A formidable army had been sent by Aurungzebe under Dilere Khan to besiege Beejapore, and the regent, during the king's minority, involved the aid of Sevajee, who stipulated as the price of his assistance for the cession of the Raichore dooab, or country lying between the Toombudra and the Kistna, and the sovereignty of his father's rygeer and of the conquests he had made, in the south. To create a diversion in favour of Beejapore, he proceeded northward, and laid waste all the country between the Beema and the Godavery, and plundered the town of Aurungabad for three days, though the Mogul viceroy was at that time residing in it. After his return from this expedition he captured twenty seven forts, and on the receipt of an express from the regent of Beejapore hastened to the succour of the town. On the line of march, his son, Sambajee, who had been placed in confinement by his father for an attempt to violate the wife of a brahmin, made his escape and went over to the Mogul general. Sevajee retired to Panalla to devise means for the recovery of the youth, and sent his army to Beejapore, which was making a noble defence. The Malhatta generals cut off all supplies from the enemy's camp, and eventually obliged Dilere Khan to raise the siege. At the same time Sambajee returned to his allegiance and was placed under restraint by

Death of Sevajee  
5th April,  
1680.

his father. But in the midst of these events all Sevajee's plans of ambition were cut short by his death, which happened at Raureo on the 5th of April, 1680, in the fifty third year of his age.

His character

Aurangzebe could not conceal the satisfaction he felt on the death of his most formidable enemy. During the long struggle which he was constrained to maintain with Sevajee, he affected to despise his power, and was accustomed to deride him as the mountain rat, but after his death he did full justice to his character. "He was," he said, "a great captain, and the only one who has had the magnanimity to raise a new kingdom, while I have been endeavouring to destroy the ancient sovereignties of India, my armies have

been employed against him for nineteen years, and nevertheless his state has been always increasing.' This state, at his death, comprised a territory estimated at four hundred miles in length, and a hundred and twenty in breadth, in the north, in the south he was in possession of half the Carnatic, which alone was equal in extent to many kingdoms in India. These large possessions were created by the efforts of his own genius and consolidated by a communion of habits, religion, and language, and a common hatred of the Mahomedans. Sevajee is one of the greatest characters in the native history of India, greater than Hyder Ali, greater even than Runjeet Sing who, in after times followed his example, and beginning life as adventurers closed it as mighty sovereigns. He did more than found a kingdom, he laid the foundation of a power, which survived the decay of his own family. His son was a dissolute tyrant, and his grandson a puppet, from whose hands the sceptre fell, but the spirit of national enthusiasm which he infused into the Mahrattas, in a few years made them the arbiters of the fate of India.

**Succession of Sambajee, the eldest son of Sevajee, was**  
**Sambajee, 1680** living in durance at the time of his father's death, in the fortress of Panalla, and a party was formed among the Mahratta chiefs to exclude him from the throne, on the ground of his profligacy. But he succeeded in establishing his authority and was acknowledged the sovereign of the Mahratta nation, after which he gave loose to the ferocity of his disposition. He caused one of his father's widows as well as those who had opposed his succession to be executed, not sparing Anajee, a brahmin to whom he was under the greatest obligations. He had none of the virtues of his father except his courage. His cruelties soon alienated the great generals and statesmen who had assisted in building up the Mahratta throne, and he rendered himself an object of general contempt by his slavish devotion to a favourite of the name of Kadoos, a Canour brahmin. His inglorious reign of nine years was marked only by rash enterprises, or

voluptuous excesses. At the beginning of his reign he was induced to renew the siege of the island of Jinjeerah, the great naval arsenal of the Moguls, which his father had attacked year after year in vain. He was obliged to relinquish the enterprize with disgrace, and the Sudee or Abyssinian admiral retaliated on him by ravaging the coast, and slaughtering him, and eventually by destroying the fleet which Devajee had been at the greatest pains to create. In the year 1681, the emperor's son, Akbar, who had at first joined the Rajpoots, sought refuge at the court of Samhajee and received a cordial welcome, but, becoming at length disgusted with the follies of that prince, he retired to Persia.

Aurangzeb in  
the Deccan,  
1683

Aurangzeb had never relinquished his designs on the Deccan. Though he had not prosecuted them with vigour, his generals had from time to time invaded Beejapore, and he himself had steadily fomented all the internal discords in that state, as well as in Golconda, and encouraged the Mahrattas to assail and plunder them both. Having now, in a great measure, subdued the opposition of the Rajpoots, which had been excited solely through his own bigotry, he resolved to bring the whole strength of the empire to bear on the subjugation of the south. It was a war of wanton aggression and, by a righteous retribution, it exhausted the resources and hastened the downfall of the Mogul power. In the year 1683 he quitted Delhi which he was destined never again to enter, with an army magnificent beyond all former example. The finest cavalry was assembled from the provinces beyond the Indus and within it, and supported by a vast and well equipped infantry. The artillery consisted of several hundred pieces served by native gunners, but directed by Europeans as well as an efficient body of sappers and miners. A long train of elephants, intended both for war and equipage, and a superb stud of horses accompanied the camp. There was, moreover, a large menagerie of leopards and tigers, and hawks and hounds without number,



and all the appliances of field sport. The camp, which resembled a moving city, was supplied with every luxury the age or country could furnish. The canvas walls which surrounded the emperor's personal encampment were twelve hundred yards in circumference, and the tents contained halls of audience, courts, cabinets, mosques, oratories, and baths adorned with the finest silks and velvets, and cloth of gold. There is no record of such extravagant luxury in any modern encampment, and it may be questioned whether it was equalled by the Persian splendour of the army of Xerxes. But there can be no question that a thoroughly equipped and well commanded force of 10,000 Europeans—cavalry, infantry, and artillery—would have dispersed this host like chaff before the wind. Yet, amidst all this grandeur, the personal habits and expenses of the emperor were as frugal and austere as those of a hermit.

Invasions of the  
Concan, 1681

With this unwieldy array the emperor moved down to Boorhanpore, and then to Aurungabad, and, by a strange infatuation, commenced his operations by directing the odious jessia to be imposed on all the Hindoos of the south. Contrary to all military principles he sent a body of 40,000 horse, under his son, prince Muazzam, to traverse the stupendous ghauts, and enter the maritime province of Concan. The prince reached the Concan without opposition, except from the natural obstacles presented by this region of mountains, and he plundered and laid waste every village as he proceeded. But the work of destruction recoiled on the invaders. The resources of the province were destroyed, and by the time the army reached the neighbourhood of Goa it was in a state of starvation. The Mahratta cruizers intercepted the supplies sent from the Mogul ports, and their cavalry blocked up the passes. The wreck of this fine army, exhausted by hunger and pestilence, was at length happy to find shelter under the walls of Ahmednugur, while Sambajee, advancing to the north, insulted the emperor by plundering and burning down the town of Boorhanpore.

Invasion of  
Beejapore. 1686

In 1686 Aurungzebe moved his camp to Solapore, and sent his son, prince Azim, to attack Beejapore. In this, the last year of its national existence, the troops of that state exhibited the most devoted gallantry. They cut off the supplies of the Mogul, intercepted all their communications and reduced the army to a state of extreme peril, from which it was extricated only by the extraordinary exertions of Ghajee ood deen, who, after a desperate engagement, succeeded in bringing up a convoy of 20 000 brinjaree bullocks with grain, but the prince could effect nothing. In the meantime, the king of Golconda, Abou Hussein formed an alliance with Sumbayce who took advantage of the embarrassment of the Mogul troops before Beejapore to lay waste the province of Guzerat, and sack the town of Broach. On the failure of the Beejapore expedition the emperor sent his general Khan Jehan, to attack Golconda. Mudhoon Punt, the Mahratta minister of that state, had equipped an army of 70 000 men to meet the invasion. It was commanded by Ibrahim Khan whose superiority in the field was so great as to place the Mogul commander completely in his power but instead of pressing his advantages, he treacherously went over to the enemy with a large portion of his army. Mudhoon was assassinated in a popular tumult excited by his enemies, and the helpless king sought refuge in the fortress of Golconda. For three days Hyderabad was subject to plunder, which the Mogul commander could not restrain, and the wealth which Aurungzebe had destined for his own coffers was, to his infinite chagrin, shared among the soldiers. The king at length sued for peace, and a treaty was concluded with him on condition of his paying a contribution of two crores of rupees.

Conquest of Beejapore, 1686.

Aurungzebe was now at liberty to turn his whole strength against Beejapore. The walls were of hewn stone six miles in circumference, and the artillery was as superior to that of the Moguls as it had ever been. Aurungzebe determined therefore to blockade the town. The

garrison began to be straitened for provisions, and its brave Patan defenders were at length obliged to capitulate. The emperor, seated on a portable throne, was carried in triumph through a breach in the walls, and the young king was consigned to captivity, and died within three years, not without suspicion of violence. On the 15th of October, 1686, Beejapore was blotted out of the roll of Indian kingdoms, after having enjoyed a career of independence for more than a hundred and fifty years. The revenues of the country were estimated in the imperial registry at seven crores of rupees a year, a sum which appears incredible, notwithstanding the fertility of its soil, and the wealth poured into it by maritime commerce. Whatever may have been the resources of the kingdom, the Adil Shahse dynasty employed them in works of utility or magnificence which had no rival in India. No race of princes ever adorned their capital in so brief a period with such magnificent mosques, palaces, and tombs. Even at the present day, after nearly two centuries of decay in an Indian climate, the majestic ruins of the city attract the admiration of the traveller, more especially the mausoleum of Mahomed Adil Shah, with its dome of simple grandeur, which, like the dome of St Peter's, fills the eye of the beholder from every quarter.

Conquest of Golconda, 1686

The fate of Golconda was not long delayed. Aurungzebe was determined not to allow the treaty which he had recently concluded with the king, to impede the absorption of the kingdom. Though the Mogul army was now sufficiently strong to overwhelm it, the emperor again had recourse to his habitual craft. He advanced into the territory with a large force, under pretence of a pilgrimage to the tomb of a saint, and began to practise on the fears of the bewildered monarch, from whom he gradually extracted all his treasure and jewels. It is recorded, that Abou Hussein stripped the inmates of his seraglio of their ornaments to propitiate the emperor. But Aurungzebe's cold and selfish nature was never capable of a generous emotion. The only return he made for these offerings was a declaration

of war against the unhappy prince, charging him, a follower of the Prophet, with the crime of having employed a brahmin for his minister, and formed an alliance with the infidel Mahrattas. The king though addicted to pleasure, was roused to indignation by the baseness of this treatment, and for seven months defended himself with a heroism worthy his ancestors. The fort of Golconda was at length captured, but only by an act of treachery, and the royal house of Kootub Shah became extinct, after a brilliant career of a hundred and seventy years. Mogul generals were sent to take possession of the districts in the Carnatic and Telingana, which had been held by the kings of Beejapore and Golconda, and the Mahrattas, leaving nothing but the principality of Tanjore in the possession of Venice, in whose line it continued till it was absorbed in the British dominions.

Confusion in  
the Deccan.

The ambition of Aurungzebe was now consummated. He had extended his authority in the south over tracts which had never before acknowledged the sovereignty of the Mahomedans, and for the first time in seven hundred years the whole of India appeared to be bound in allegiance to a single head. The year 1688 is the culminating point of Mahomedan rule. The calamities of Aurungzebe commenced as soon as he had reached the summit of success, and the decay of the Mogul empire may be dated from the fall of Golconda. The governments which had maintained order in the Deccan had disappeared, no system of equal vigour was established in their stead. The suspicious nature of Aurungzebe prevented him from entrusting any of his generals with a force which they might be tempted by its magnitude to turn against him. The two states of Beejapore and Golconda had maintained their authority by an army of 200 000 men, the Mogul army, after their subjugation did not exceed 34,000 men. The disbanded soldiery enlisted under disaffected commanders, or joined the predatory bands of the Mahrattas, and each petty chief, in accordance with the prescriptive habits of the country, "withdrew his

neck from the yoke of obedience," whenever it could be done with the prospect of impunity. Aurungzebe was incessantly employed in the siege of forts; there was no energy at the head-quarters of government; there was no redress for the oppression of the governors, while the collectors of the jezzir extorted millions from the wretched Hindoos, and exasperated them against the Mogul conquerors. The Deccan became a scene of boundless confusion, and the last twenty years of the reign of Aurungzebe presented a constant succession of conspiracies and revolts, which consumed the strength of his army and of the empire.

Death of Sambajee, 1689

Sambajee, infatuated with his favourite and immersed in low pleasures, viewed with indifference the fall of Beejapore and Golconda, though it enabled the Moguls to concentrate their efforts upon the Mahrattas. Aurungzebe had taken possession of the open country, and was engaged in besieging the forts, when Sambajee was surprised during a drunken revel, and conveyed as a prisoner to his presence. After the insult offered to the imperial power by the plunder of Boorhanpore and Broach he had sworn that "he would never return to Delhi till he had seen the head of the Mahratta weltering at his feet." The life of Sambajee was offered him on condition that he would turn Musulman. The haughty son of Sevajee replied, "Not if you would give me your daughter in marriage," and at the same time poured a torrent of abuse on the Prophet. Aurungzebe ordered his tongue to be cut out for his blasphemy, and finally put him to death with the most excruciating tortures. Though Sambajee had lived nine years amidst the contempt of his subjects, his tragic end created a strong feeling of pity among them, and gave a keen edge to that spirit of hostility which they cherished towards the Mahomedans. The flagitious execution of Sambajee, which has left a stain of the deepest dye on the character of Aurungzebe, was not only a crime, but an error. It was the sowing of the dragon's teeth, of which the emperor reaped an abundant harvest before his death.

Sahoo, king of  
the Mahratta  
1699

The Mahrattas, unable any longer to look abroad for assistance, and pressed by the whole power of the Mogul empire, were obliged to bend to the storm. The cabinet of ministers elected Sahoo, the infant son of Sambajee, though then a captive in the emperor's camp, to fill the throne, and appointed his uncle, Ram rya, regent. Of the great kingdom founded by Sevajee little remained in the north, and it was determined to make suitable arrangements for preserving the remnant, and to transfer the seat of Mahratta power to the south. Ram-rya, with twenty five chiefs, made his way in disguise through the Carnatic amidst a variety of adventures, on which the national historians delight to dwell, and established his court at the fortress of Gingee, which Sevajee conquered in 1676, little dreaming at the time that it was one day to become the refuge of his family. Ram rya, on his arrival, laid aside the character of regent and assumed the ensigns of sovereignty, arranging his court on the model of that of his father.

Mahratta depredations, 1692.

In the following year he sent two of his generals, Santajee and Dhunnajee, with a force which increased on its progress, to plunder the Mogul territories and distract their attention. They extended their ravages to the neighbourhood of Satara, where Ramchunder, who had been entrusted with the Mahratta interests in the north, devised a new plan for damaging the Moguls. He conferred the right of levying the *chout* and *sur desh moollee*, and of laying waste the districts which refused these exactions, on every Mahratta chief who could bring his retainers into the field. At the same time he created a new demand of *glans dana*, or forage money, which was to be the individual perquisite of each chieftain. Under this new impulse, every mountain and valley poured forth its inhabitants to desolate the plains, and the Mogul authorities instead of having one great predatory army, directed by a single head and amenable to obligations on their hands, had a monster with a hundred heads to deal with.

Compare laws of  
the Moguls and  
the Mahrattas.

The Mogul army was ill fitted to contend with this new swarm of warriors. Its commanders were silken generals compared with the iron chiefs of Akbar's days. They vied with each other only in extravagant display, while their persons were protected from danger by wadding and chain armour. The spread of luxury had eaten out the spirit of valour and discipline, and nothing was so little desired by them as the sight of the enemy. The number of men for whom the officers drew pay, was never honestly maintained, and the ranks were filled with any cheap and beggarly recruits they could pick up. A force thus constituted was no match for the Mahratta troops accustomed to hard fare and harder work. "The horse without a saddle was rode by a man without clothes, whose constant weapon was a trusty sabre, footmen inured to the same travel and bearing all kind of arms trooped with the horse, spare horses accompanied them to bring off the booty, and relieve the wearied or wounded. All gathered their daily provisions as they passed. No pursuit could reach their march in conflict their onset fell wherever they chose, and was relinquished even in the instant of charge. Whole districts were in flames before their approach was known, as a terror to others to redeem the ravage.

Siege of Ginjee,  
1699-99.

The rallying point of the Mahrattas was the fortress of Ginjee, the siege of which was as protracted as the siege of Troy. On hearing that Ram raja had taken up his abode in that fortress Zulfikar Khan was in the first instance sent to capture it, but the suspicious temper of the emperor led him repeatedly to change the commanders, and the operations necessarily languished. Zulfikar was often in collusion with the Mahrattas and it was even suspected that he contemplated the establishment of an independent authority through their aid, on the death of the aged emperor. It was during the languor of this siege that Santajee Ghorepuray, having defeated the Mogul generals in the north, appeared before the place with a body

of 20,000 horse. The besieging army was besieged in its turn, and Cam bulsh, the son of the emperor, and the nominal commander in chief, was driven to a humiliating convention. Aurungzebe disallowed it, recalled his son, and entrusted the command for the third time to Zulfiyar. But as he was in communication with the enemy, the siege was again prolonged, till the emperor, indignant at his inactivity, gave him the option of its immediate capture, or his own degradation. Zulfiyar now assaulted the fort in earnest, and it was reduced in the year 1698.

Ram raja makes  
Satara his capital 1698.

Ram raja, who had been allowed, through the connivance of Zulfiyar, to escape from Gingee before its capitulation, made his way back to his native mountains and selected Satara as his capital. He was soon enabled to assemble a larger army than Serajeo had ever commanded, and proceeded to levy what he termed "the Mahratta dues" through the provinces of Candesh and Berar. The greater portion of the maritime forts of the Mahrattas had been preserved or recovered, and, with Colaba for their arsenal, they were enabled to keep the sea against the Moguls. On the other hand, the Mahratta cause suffered the severest injury by the death of Suntajee Ghorepnray, who had been the terror of the Mogul armies for seven years. Dhunnajee, his former associate, became his mortal enemy, he was hunted by his own countrymen like a wild beast, through the region which he had filled with his exploits, and was at length brought to bay and his head cut off and sent as an acceptable present to the emperor.

New plans of  
Aurungzebe,  
1 00

To meet the increasing audacity of the Mahrattas, Aurungzebe devised the plan of separating his army into two divisions—one to be employed in protecting the open country from their depredations—the other in capturing their forts. The first duty was committed to Zulfiyar Khan, the ablest and the most energetic of the Mogul generals, at a time when they were universally enervated by indulgence and weakness. He repeatedly defeated the



Mahrattas in the field, but he was unable to reduce their strength, and they always appeared more fresh after a defeat than his own troops after a victory. Aurungzebe reserved the task of capturing the fortresses for himself, and, breaking up his encampment on the banks of the Beema, to the deep regret of his voluptuous officers, commenced operations by the siege of Satara, which was surrendered to him in four months in April, 1700. A month before this period Ram raja expired at Singur, and his son, a child of ten years of age, was declared king under the regency of his mother, Tara Bye.

During the succeeding five years Aurungzebe was incessantly engaged in reducing the Mahratta forts, but while thus employed he continued

to superintend the minutest details of business throughout the empire, and not even a petty officer was admitted to the service at Orbul without his concurrence. When we are assured that the climate of India invariably relaxes the vigour of the body and the energies of the mind, we turn with astonishment to this octogenarian chief, engaged incessantly with youthful vigour in the duties of the cabinet or in the severer labours of the field, in a wild country and a vile climate. But all the energy of Aurungzebe was unable to cope with the disorders which multiplied around him. The Rajpoots were again in open hostility, other tribes in the north, encouraged by his continued absence, and the consequent weakness of the administration, began to exhibit a refractory spirit. His treasury was exhausted by a wasting war of twenty five years. The Mahratta chiefs began to recover their forts, and in 1705 he received accounts at once and the same time that they had crossed the Nerbudda in great force, and extended their ravages to Malwa, and overrun Berar and Candesh, and also despatched 15 000 troops to levy contributions in Guzarat. In every direction around his camp, north, south, east, and west nothing was seen but the sack of villages, the slaughter of troops, and devastation of the country.

Overtures to the  
Mahrattas, 1 06

In these deplorable circumstances the emperor made overtures to the Mahrattas, and offered them a legal title to the *fourth* and the *tenth* of the revenues of the six soobahs of the Deccan, on condition of their maintaining order and repressing violence. But they immediately rose in their demands, and had the effrontery to require dresses of honour for more than seventy of their marrying chiefs. The negotiation was therefore brot en off, and the imperial encampment began to retire to Ahmednagar, closely followed by the Mahrattas, who plundered up to the verge of the camp, and converted the retreat into an ignominious flight. Twenty years before Aurungzebe had marched from this capital in all the pride and pomp of war, to extend his dominion to Cape Comorin, he now returned to it with the remnant of a discomfited army, and pursued by a victorious

Aurungzebe's  
death, and  
February 1 07

foe, and there he expired on the 22nd of February, 1707. By his will he directed that his funeral expenses should be limited to four rupees and a half, to be defrayed from the sum he had received for the caps he had made and sold, and that the sum of 800 rupees, which he had acquired from the sale of the Korans he had copied with his own hands, should be distributed among the poor.

Remarks on  
his reign.

Aurungzebe has been considered by the native historians the type of Mogul greatness, and his name is invested with an indefinite idea of grandeur, even in the minds of Europeans. But this feeling is corrected by a close inspection of the events of his reign, and it is impossible to resist the conviction that few characters in Indian history have ever been more overrated. His personal bravery, his military talents, and his application to business, are deserving of all praise, but he persisted in a policy which was inherently vicious, after he perceived the ruin it was bringing on the empire. He was engaged for twenty five years in a war, first of intolerance and then of aggression, which exhausted the resources of the country, and hastened

the downfall of the house of Baber. The great oriental despotism of the Moguls, like others which preceded it, had nearly run out the usual period of two centuries, and began to crumble to pieces, as soon as the genius or the prestige of Aurungzebe ceased to sustain it.

## CHAPTER VII

FROM THE DEATH OF AURUNGZEBE TO THE INVASION OF  
NADIR SHAH, 1707—1739

On the death of Aurungzebe, prince Azim, who had been banished through his father's dread of being treated by his own sons when weakened by disease, as he had treated Shah Jehan immediately returned to the encampment, caused himself to be proclaimed emperor, and prepared to march to the capital, but his elder brother, Muazzam, with better reason resumed the crown, and advanced from Cabul to meet his rival. His son, who had governed Bengal for eleven years, materially assisted his cause by opportunely bringing up eight crores of ruppes which he had amassed during that period. The two armies met in the neighbourhood of Agra, when prince Azim was defeated and fell, together with two of his sons. Zulfiar, who had remained neuter during the engagement at once declared for the victor. It only remained to dispose of the pretension of the youngest son of the late emperor, Cam bul shi who was assembling troops in the Deccan. Zulfiar marched against him with a contingent of Mahrattas and defeated him. He died shortly after of his wounds and Muazzam who was left the undisputed master of the empire, assumed the title of Bahadoor Shah.

The Mahrattas who had baffled the power of Aurungzebe for thirty years, were now weakened by intestine discord. Tara Bye the widow of

Dr. Jones for the  
throne. Success  
of Bahadoor  
Shah, 1707

Mahratta  
—Sahib—Tara  
Bye 1708

Ram raja held the reins of government for seven years, in the name of her son Sahoo, the son of Sambajee, the legitimate heir to the throne, had been for seventeen years a captive in the Mogul camp, where he had been treated with great kindness by the emperor, who married him to the daughters of two of the principal Mahratta sirdars in his service. Prince Azim, when setting out to seize the prize at Delhi, adopted the sage advice of Zulfiakar, and not only granted Sahoo his liberty but furnished him with assistance to assert his claim to the Mahratta throne, on condition that he should hold it as a vassal of the empire. Tara Bye immediately proclaimed him an impostor, and collected an army to oppose him, but he succeeded in obtaining possession of Satara, and in March, 1708, assumed the functions of royalty. In this family contest, the great Mahratta chieftains embraced opposite sides, and drew their swords against each other, a happy event for the neighbouring provinces. At the end of five years, Sevajee, the son of Tara Bye, died, and her minister seized the opportunity of superseding her authority, and placing another of the sons of Ram raja, Sambajee, on the throne at Kolapore, which, from that period became the seat of the younger branch of the royal family, and the rival of Satara.

Daood Khan  
grants the  
elephant, 109

Zulfiakar Khan was rewarded for his adherence to Bahadoor Shah with the vice royalty of the Deccan, which he committed to the care of Daood

Khan, while he himself continued to reside at the capital. Daood Khan was a Patan of noble birth, famous throughout the Deccan for his matchless courage, and his love of strong drink. He paid frequent visits to Madras, and did not hesitate to partake of English hospitality. The Madras President always "took care to supply him with liquors, because he was so generous under their influence." It is recorded that in 1701, Mr Pitt, the father of Lord Chatham, who then occupied that post, gave him a grand entertainment in the Council Chamber, when the Patan "pledged the chief largely in cordial waters and French brandy, amidst a discharge of cannon."

Zulfikar, who was desirous of cultivating peace with the Mahrattas, of whom he had been the most formidable foe in the field for fifteen years, authorized his lieutenant to offer Sahoo the *chout* which the Mahrattas had so long extorted by violence. Though the concession came only from a local officer, and was not therefore conclusive, it was not the less prized by the Mahratta cabinet, as the first legitimate title they had been able to acquire to their exactions. The tranquility of Rajpootana was secured by the same spirit of concession to its three principal rajas.

Origin of the  
Sikhs. These arrangements which clearly indicated the growing weakness of the empire, appear to have been hastened by the inroads of the Sikhs in the north. Nanuk, the founder of the Sikh community, who flourished about the close of the fifteenth century, taught, that devotion was due to God, but that forms were immaterial, and that the worship of the Hindoos and the Mahomedans was equally acceptable to the deity. The sect which he founded gradually increased in numbers for a century, and became an object of detestation to the bigotted Mahomedans, who massacred its pontiff in 1606. In 1675, Gooroo Govind, the tenth spiritual chief in succession from Nanuk, conceived the idea of forming the Sikhs into a military, as well as a religious, commonwealth. He abolished all distinction of caste, and admitted all converts to perfect equality, but every member of the body was required to be a pledged soldier from his birth, or his initiation. He inculcated reverence for the Hindoo gods and brahmins, and prohibited the slaughter of kine. After a long struggle with the Mahomedans, he saw his strongholds captured, his mother and children destroyed, and his followers slaughtered, mutilated, or dispersed. These severities exasperated the fanaticism of the Sikhs, and planted an inextinguishable hatred of the Mahomedans in their minds. Under a new chief, of the name of Bundoo, they issued from their retreats, overran the Punjab, and, if we are to believe the Mahomedan historians, committed unheard of atrocities.

Death of Bahadur Shah, 1 12.

At the beginning of the eighteenth century, they had extended their inroads, on the one side to Lahore, and on the other to Delhi, and Bahadoor Shah marched against them in person and drove them back to the hills. He died on his return to Lahore, in February, 1712, after a brief reign of five years, at the age of seventy two.

Accession and death of Jehander Shah, 1 12.

His death was immediately followed by the usual contest among his sons, which terminated in the defeat and death of three of them, when the survivor mounted the throne, and assumed the title of Jehander Shah. One of the earliest acts of his reign, was to put to death all the princes of the blood royal within his reach. He appointed Zulfikar Khan, who had supported him through the conflict to the post of vizier, while he resigned himself to the most degrading pleasures, and raised the relatives of a dancing girl who had become his favourite mistress, to the highest honours in the state. But his ignoble career was speedily cut short by his nephew, Ferokshere, who had escaped the massacre of his family, by his absence in Bengal, of which he was the viceroy. He advanced with an army of 70,000 men, and defeated the emperor in the neighbourhood of Agra. The noble Zulfikar Khan, the last of the great captains of the Mogul dynasty, whose ancestors had served it in the highest offices for more than a century, was basely strangled by the orders of Ferokshere, and the wretched Jehander Shah was put to death after a reign of six months.

Ferokshere 1 13.  
—The Syuds.

Ferokshere, the most contemptible, as yet, of any of the princes of his line, ascended the throne in 1713, and dishonoured it for six years by his vices and his cowardice. He owed his elevation to the exertions of two brothers, Hussein Ali, the governor of Behar, and Abdoolah Khan, the governor of Allahabad, generally denominated the Syuds, to denote their descent from the Prophet, and his reign was little else but a series of machinations to destroy them. The one was advanced to the post of vizier, and Hussein Ali was appointed commander in chief. They were both men

of talent and valour, but, as they monopolised all power, they incurred the jealousy of the emperor and the enmity of his favourites. Immediately on his accession Ferokhsere made a native of Mooltan, who had been a eunuch at Dacca, his chief confidant, and under his influence sent Hussein Ali against Ajit Sing, the raja of Joudhpore, in the hope that the expedition might prove fatal to him. But he disappointed his enemies by concluding an honourable peace with the raja, and inducing him to give one of his daughters in marriage to the emperor. The nuptials, which were celebrated at Delhi with extraordinary splendour, have become memorable in the history of British India by the patriotic conduct of a British surgeon, the particulars of which will be given in a future chapter.

Nizam-ool  
mulk, viceroy  
of the Deccan,  
—1713.

Druid Khan, who had governed the Deccan as the deputy of Zulfiqar Khan, was removed after the destruction of his patron, and sent as governor to Guzerat. The agreement he had made with the Mahrattas regarding the *chout* and other dues fell to the ground on his removal and they began to collect them again by violence. The office of soobadar of the Deccan was bestowed on the son of Ghazee-ood-deen, who has been already mentioned in connection with the siege of Bejapore in 1686. The family had emigrated from Turkey, or rather Tartary, to seek its fortunes in India, and belonged to a clique of officials at the capital who were commonly designated the *Toorancee nollas*. Chun Kilich Khan, the new soobadar, rose to distinction in the court of Aurungzebe, by whom he was decorated with the titles of Asof-Jah and Nizam ool moolk. As it was on this occasion that he laid the foundation of the kingdom of Hyderabad, we shall anticipate the period of his independence by designating him henceforward as the Nizam. He was a statesman of great experience and ability, but of still greater subtlety. During the seventeen months of his incumbency he fomented the dissensions between the rival houses of Kolapore and Satara, and thus established some check on the ravages of the Mahrattas. Sahoo was induced to acknowledge himself

a vassal of the emperor, and though in his own circle he assumed the title of king of the Hindoos in the court calendar

he was ranked as a Mogul commander of 10,000  
 The increasing contentions of these two branches  
 of the family of Serajee had created such anarchy  
 as to bring the Mahratta state to the verge of ruin, when the  
 genius of Balajee Vishwunath placed the party of Sahoo in the  
 ascendant, and rekindled the smouldering energies of the nation  
 Balajee was originally a simple karkoon, or village accountant,  
 but rose through various gradations of office till he reached the  
 dignity of Peshwa, or chief minister. It was to his energy  
 that the rapid expansion of the Mahratta power, when it had  
 reached the limit of depression, is to be attributed, and  
 he may justly be regarded as the second founder of its  
 greatness

The Nizam was discharged from the office of  
 viceroy of the Deccan to make room for Hussein  
 Ali, one of the Syuds, who was sent thither to  
 remove him from the court. Instructions were at  
 the same time given to Dood Khan to offer him the most  
 strenuous but covert opposition, and the reversion of the ap-  
 pointment was held out to him as the reward of success.  
 But Dood Khan was too daring and impetuous for any sub-  
 terfuge, and he determined to bring the dispute to an immediate  
 issue. He accordingly met Hussein Ali with his own  
 veteran force, and attacked him with such fury as to scatter  
 his forces like a flock of sheep. But in the moment of victory  
 a cannon ball struck him dead and the fortune of the day was  
 changed. His devoted wife, a Hindoo princess, on hearing of  
 his fate, stabbed herself to the heart. The memory of his  
 reckless courage and his chivalrous exploits is still preserved  
 in many a ballad and proverb in the Deccan. Hussein Ali,  
 flushed with this victory, took the field against the Mahrattas,  
 but was completely defeated, and they immediately extended  
 their encroachments and enlarged their claims. The emperor,  
 anxious only for the destruction of his own obnoxious general,

Hussein Ali  
 Soobadar of the  
 Deccan, 1714.  
 Death of Dood  
 Khan.



gave them every encouragement to resist him, and promised to reward them if they were successful

Convention with the Mahrattas, 1717  
 Hussein Ah, distracted on the one hand by the incessant plots hatched against him at Delhi and on the other by the depredations of the Mahrattas, who were stimulated by the court, adopted the desperate resolution of winning them over to his cause by concessions. He entered into negotiations with the Mahratta cabinet, which were conducted with consummate skill by Balajee Vishwunath, and resulted in a convention as advantageous to the Mahrattas as it was disgraceful to the Moguls. Sahoo was acknowledged as the independent sovereign of the districts comprised in the family jaygeer, and of subsequent conquests. The "fourth" and the "tenth" of the revenues of the six soubahs of the Deccan, and of the tributary states of Tanjore, Mysore, and Trichinopoly, were bestowed on him on condition that he should, in addition to the usual fee on such grants, pay an annual tribute of ten lacs of rupees, furnish a contingent of 15,000 troops, and become responsible for the peace of the Deccan.

Remarks on this Convention  
 This was the greatest stride to power the Mahrattas had yet made and it fulfilled the fondest wishes of the founder of this system of spoliation. It furnished them with a large and permanent revenue, for though the six soubahs had been exhausted by the incessant ravages of war, the assignment granted to the Mahrattas was, at their dictation, calculated on the sum of 18 crores which those provinces had yielded in the years of peace and prosperity. It would apparently have been more to the pecuniary advantage of the Mahrattas to exchange assignments spread over a country which extended from sea to sea, and from the Nerbudda to Cape Comorin, for a compact territory. But the great object of the Peshwa was to render the claims of the Mahratta nation as complicated, as extensive, and as vague as possible, and thus to acquire a right of constant interference in the revenue administration of the entire Deccan,

late emperor, he was alienated from their interests by being nominated to the inferior post of governor of Guzerat, when he had every reason to expect the viceroyalty of the Deccan. He began to collect troops, on the plea of restoring order in the province assigned to him, but in reality to establish his own power in the south, where he had many adherents, both among the Mahrattas and the Mahomedans. He Revolt of the Nizam, June, 1720 marched southward with 12,000 men, and having captured the important fortress of Asseergur, and overrun Candesh, defeated two armies which were sent against him, and thus became master of his position.

Hussein Ali assassinated 1729 Meanwhile the young emperor was fretting under the yoke of the Syuds, and, under the discreet guidance of his mother, formed a combination among the nobles of his court to release himself from their power. The plot, which embraced some of the most eminent of the courtiers, could not be concealed from the brothers, but they were distracted by the difficulties which surrounded them on every side. At length it was resolved that Hussein Ali should march against the Nizam, taking the emperor with him, and that Abdoola should return to Delhi, the court being then at Agra, to look after the family interests. Five days after the army had commenced its march, a savage Calmuck, who had been selected to strike the blow, approached the palan-keen of Hussein Ali, on pretence of presenting a petition, and stabbed him to the heart. In the conflict which necessarily ensued, the partisans of the emperor were victorious, and the army marched back to Delhi. Abdoola, hearing of his brother's fate, set up a new emperor, and marched to encounter Mahomed Shah, but he was entirely defeated, though his life was spared in consideration of his august lineage.

Mahomed Shah enters the capital, 1720 Mahomed Shah, now a free monarch, entered his capital with great pomp a twelvemonth after he had been elevated to the throne, and made a liberal distribution of offices. The odious *jizma*, the tax on infidels, was abolished. The Rajpoot rajas of Joudhpore and

Jeypore were promoted to governorships, while the rija of Oodypore, still isolated by his orthodox dignity, refused all intercourse with the court, and sunk into contempt. Sadut

Ali, a Khorasan merchant, who had raised himself by his talents to the charge of Bina, was made soobadar of Onde, where he founded the royal dynasty which was extinguished in 1856. The office of vizier was reserved for the Nizam, who came up from the Deccan

to assume the control of public affairs. But he found the new emperor utterly unworthy of his station, immersed in pleasures, and so

besotted with a favourite mistress as to have given her the custody and use of the royal signet. He endeavoured to rouse Mahomed Shah to a sense of his duties as the head of a great empire which was exposed on every side to danger. But his master turned a deaf ear to this sage counsel, and listened with more delight to the advice of his dissolute companions, who amused him by turning the antiquated habits and solemn manner of the venerable statesman, then in his seventy fifth year, into ridicule.

The courtiers to rid themselves of the presence of the vizier, sent him against the refractory governor of Guzerat, whom their own folly had driven into rebellion. He quelled the revolt at once by his tact, and returned to the capital, where, however, he did not long remain. Disgusted with the weakness and profligacy of the court, and despairing of any reform, he threw up his office and proceeded to the Deccan. The emperor loaded him with honours on his departure but at the same time instigated the local governor of Hyderabad Mobariz Khan to resist his authority, and held out the reversion of the viceroyalty as a bait. The Nizam defeated Mobariz and sent his head to Delhi congratulating the Court on the extinction of the revolt. He then fixed on Hyderabad the ancient capital of the Kootub-Shahoe dynasty, as the seat of his government, and from this period

as the seat of his government, and from this period  
 Founded Hyderabad, 1848 may be dated the rise of the Nizam's dominion

Origin of the  
 Oode family  
 1711

The Nizam ap-  
 pointed vizier  
 1722

He returns to the  
 Deccan, 1723

Death of Balajee  
Vishwunath,  
1790

Balajee Vishwunath, as already stated, had accompanied Hussein Ali with a Mahratta contingent to Delhi, and, on the accession of Mahomed Shah, obtained the imperial confirmation of the grants of the "fourth" and the "tenth," and returned in triumph with the invaluable charters, fourteen in number, to Satara where he soon after died. Before his death he completed the arrangements for the collection of the assignments he had acquired, and established a system of the most intricate subdivision of interests, by which ample provision was made for a whole army of Mahratta officials. A preponderating power was thus given to the cabinet of brahmins at Satara, which eventually resulted in the transfer of all the authority of the state to their chief, the Peshwa. He was succeeded in his office by his son Bajee Rao, who exhibited in the highest degree the enterprise of the Mahratta character, and in talent and vigour proved to be second only to Sevajee. The interest of the succeeding twenty years of the history of India centres in the alliances, and disputes, and strategy of the young Mahratta statesman of Satara, and the subtle old Turk at Hyderabad, who made peace and war without any reference to the emperor at Delhi.

Bajee Rao's ad-  
vice to Sahoo,  
1793

The impetuosity of Bajee Rao's character led him to propose the boldest schemes of ambition to his master Sahoo. He felt that unless employment could be found abroad for the large body of predatory horse which formed the sinews of the Mahratta power they would be engaged in mischief at home. Fully aware of the decay of the Mogul power, he urged the king "to strike the trunk of the withering tree, the branches must fall of themselves. Now is our time to drive strangers from the land of the Hindoos, and to acquire immortal renown. By directing our efforts to Hindostan the Mahratta flag in your regiments shall fly from the Kistna to the Attol." "You shall plant it on the Himalayan," replied Sahoo. But he had been bred in the luxury of a Mahomedan seraglio, and had lost the boldness

and energy of the Mahratta character. Byjee Rao found that his own ardour was ill seconded by his sovereign, and was constrained to act under his own discretion, and thus the house of Serajee waxed weaker, and the house of the Peshwa waxed stronger.

Affairs of  
Guzerat.

The Nizam had appointed his uncle, Humeed Khan, his representative in Guzerat, in opposition to the court at Delhi. The court appointed Sir boohund Khan governor of the province, with directions to extinguish this revolt. With the aid of two Mahratta commanders Kantejee and Peltjee, Humeed Khan was enabled to defeat the Mogul armies, and rewarded them with a grant of the "fourth" and the "tenth" of the revenues of Guzerat. Byjee Rao took advantage of this discord and renewed his excursions into Malwa, granting Sindia, Holkar, and Paware of Dhar, commissions to levy *chout* in that province, while he him self proceeded to the south, and exacted contributions from the ruler at Serangapatam. Alarmed by the increasing audacity of the Peshwa's depredations, the Nizam endeavoured to revive the dissensions of the rival houses of Kolapore and Satara. Sambhjee claimed his share of the assignments which had been granted to the Peshwa. Balajee Vishwunath on the six subahs of the Deccan, and the Nizam as the official representative of the emperor, called on both parties to produce their titles and substantiate their claims before him. Sahoo and his cabinet were filled with indignation by what they deemed an insolent attempt to interfere in their domestic quarrels. Byjee Rao instantly assembled a large army, and marched against the Nizam, who was likewise supported by a large body of Mahrattas, but he was driven into a position where the want of provisions constrained him to enter into negotiations, which terminated more favourably than could have been expected.

Peshwa of a na  
the cho t of  
Guzerat, 123.

The singular moderation of the Peshwa on this occasion when the Nizam was at his mercy, was not without a cause. He was at the time negotiating with Sir boohund Khan, the imperial governor of Guzerat,

who had succeeded in establishing his authority, for the *chout* and other assignments which had been granted to the two Mahratta officers already mentioned, and, to expedite the bargain, sent his brother to lay the country waste. Sir-boolund at length found it expedient to purchase some measure of peace by yielding to these demands. The concession was, however, more restricted than that which had been granted by Hussein Ali, and confirmed by Mahomed Shah. The *chout* was to be calculated on the actual amount of collections; only two or three officers were to be placed in each district to collect the dues, no other exactions were to be inflicted on the ryots, and every assistance was to be given to the imperial authority. From these limitations we are enabled to perceive how greatly the Mahrattas had abused the power conferred on them by the charters which they obtained eight years before. Never was a more flagitious and intolerable system of extortion invented by human ingenuity than that which the genius of Sevajee had devised, and which the Mahrattas considered it their mission to extend over the whole of India.

Kolapore and  
Satara at peace  
1730

While Bajee Rao was employed in settling his demands on Guzerat, Sambajee crossed the Wurnah and plundered the territory of his rival, Sahoo. He was, however, subsequently defeated, and obliged to sign an acknowledgment of his cousin's right to the entire Mahratta territory, with the exception of a small tract around Kolapore, to which his branch of the royal family was thenceforward to be confined, and thus ended the dissensions of twenty years. The Nizam, foiled in his attempt to weaken the Mahrattas by internal discord, found a new instrument of mischief in Dhabarry, the Mahratta commander-in-chief. He had been intrusted with the Mahratta interests in Guzerat, and was mortified to find that the *chout* and other dues in his own province had been carried off by Bajee Rao. Under a feeling of resentment and at the instigation of the Nizam, he marched towards Satara with 35,000 men, with the avowed object of releasing Sahoo from the tyranny of the Peelwa, but

he was defeated by an inferior force, and fell in battle. The influence of his rival was increased in no small degree by this attempt to destroy it. But the Peshwa acted with generosity, and conferred the office which had been held by Dhabarry on his son, an infant, and entrusted the management of affairs to Orphan of the Peelajee Guickwar, whose immediate ancestor Guickwar was a cow herder, and whose descendants now occupy the throne of Baroda.

Origin of Holkar and Sindia. To this period also belongs the rise of the families of Holkar and Sindia, destined to take a prominent part in the politics of India. Mulhar Rao Holkar was the son of a herdsman, but, being a youth of adventurous disposition, exchanged the crook for the sword, and by his daring courage recommended himself to Bajee Rao, who entrusted him with the charge of levying contributions in eighty-four districts or villages in Malwa. Ranojee Sindia, though said to be allied to the noblest families in Rajpootana, was of the caste of cultivators, and entered the service of Balajee Vishwunath as a menial servant. It is related that on one occasion his master, returning from an interview with the raja Sahoo, found his attendant asleep on his back with the slipper firmly grasped in his hand. Struck with his fidelity in so humble an occupation, the Peshwa introduced him into his body guard. He soon became one of the foremost of the Mahratta chieftains, and like Holkar, received asignments in the districts of Malwa, which formed the nucleus of the family domain.

After the defeat of Dhabarry the Peshwa and the Nizam came to a mutual understanding for the promotion of their respective interests,

and it was agreed that Bajee Rao should be at liberty to plunder the Mogul territories in the north without restraint, and that the Nizam's possessions in the south should not be molested by the Mahrattas. In fact, the Nizam, the representative of the emperor in the Deccan purchased peace by letting the Mahrattas loose on the dominions of his sovereign.

reign beyond the Nerbudda Bajee Rao crossed that river in 1732, and laid waste the devoted province of Malwa. The Mogul governor, Mahomed Bungush, was engaged at the time in besieging a refractory chief in Bundelcund, who invoked the aid of Bajee Rao. Bungush was soon, in his turn, besieged and was rescued only by the prompt arrival of his countrymen from Rohilcund. The Bundelcund raj advanced his gratitude to the Peshwa by bequeathing him a third of his territory of Jhansi, and thus was the Mahratta standard planted for the first time on the banks of the <sup>Malwa ceded to</sup> <sup>Bajee Rao, 138</sup> Jumna. The government of Malwa was soon after conferred by the emperor on the Rajpoot prince, Jey Sing, whose reign was rendered illustrious by the encouragement of science and the erection of the beautiful city of Jey-pere, with its palaces, halls, and temples, and, above all, its noble observatory. The profession of a common creed had promoted a friendly intercourse between the Mahratta and the Rajpoot chiefs, and Jey Sing, who was more of a scholar than a statesman, made over the whole province of Malwa to Bajee Rao, though not without the supposed concurrence of the feeble court of Delhi.

<sup>Bajee Rao's demands, 138</sup> These concessions only served to inflame the ambition of Bajee Rao, and the necessities of his position constrained him to extend his aggressions. Great as were the resources of the Mahratta state, the greater portion of the revenue was absorbed by the chiefs who collected it, and only a fraction reached the national treasury. The magnitude of Bajee Rao's operations had involved him in debt, the bankers were slow to make further advances, his troops were clamorous for their pay, and discipline was weakened by his inability to meet their claims. He therefore demanded of the imperial court a confirmation of the assignments on Guzerat which had been granted by Sirboolund Khan, and of the recent cession of the province of Malwa as his personal jaygeer. The emperor or rather his minister, Khan Dowrah, offered him an assignment of thirteen lacs of



rupees on the districts south of the Chumbul, with permission to levy tribute in Pypootan, in the hope that this clam would embroil him with the Rajpoot princes. But Bajee Rao having learnt from his agent at Delhi that all his demands were likely to be conceded with a little more pressure, immediately increased them, and did not scruple to claim the whole territory south of the Chumbul, the surrender of the holy cities of Benares, Gya, Muttra, and Allahabad, and the immediate payment of fifty lacs of rupees. The court endeavoured to appease him with smaller sacrifices which he readily accepted but without abating the price of his forbearance, or the progress of his army. Holkar crossed the Jumna, by his orders, and plundered the Doorb but was driven back by Sadut Khan, the soobdar of Oude, and this success was magnified at Delhi into a grand victory in which thousands of infidels were said to have perished. It was even reported that Bajee Rao had been obliged to retire. 'I was compelled,' he wrote, 'to tell the emperor the truth and to prove to him that I was still in Hindoostan to show him flames and Mah rattas at the gates of his capital. He advanced towards Delhi by forced marches of forty miles a day. The consternation in the imperial city may well be conceived but his object was not to sack the capital, but to intimidate the court into concessions and circumstances rendered it advisable for him to withdraw. His moderation encouraged a party of eight thousand horse under some of the nobles to attack his camp, but they were easily repelled by Holkar. Bajee Rao now retired from the north, recrossed the Nerbudda, and proceeded to Satara.

The Mahrattas appeared now to be paramount in India, and the Nizam was considered by the emperor and his ministers, the only man who could save the empire from extinction. He himself perceived when too late, the impolicy of his compact with Bajee Rao in 1782, which had enabled the Mahrattas to plunder the northern provinces without interruption, and augmented their power to

The Nizam defeated by Bajee Rao 137

an extent which now threatened his own safety and that of every other Mahomedan potentate in India. He listened to the overtures of the court, and repaired to Delhi, where the government of Malwa and of Guzerat was conferred on him, and all the power and resources of the empire were placed at his disposal. But these resources were now reduced to so low an ebb that he could assemble an army of only 34,000 men, with which he moved down to Malwa, while the Peshwa advanced to oppose him with 80,000. Owing, perhaps, to his great age—he was now ninety-three—perhaps to an over confidence in his artillery, which was esteemed the best in India, he intrenched himself near Bhopal, instead of boldly encountering the enemy in the field. Bajee Rao adopted the usual Marhatta system of warfare—laying waste the country around, intercepting all supplies, and harassing his opponent with incessant attacks. At length, on the twenty-fourth day from the commencement of the siege, the Nizam, receiving no reinforcements, while his enemy called up every Marhatta chief in the Deccan to his aid, was constrained to sign a humiliating treaty, granting to the victorious Marhatta the sovereignty of Malwa, and of all the territory up to the banks of the Chumbul, and engaging to use all his influence to obtain the grant of fifty lacs of rupees from the treasury at Delhi. But that treasure was to find a different destination.

*Invalence of Nadir*  
*Shah, 133* It was in the midst of these distractions, which exhausted the strength of the empire, that Nadir Shah made his appearance on the banks of the Indus, and India was visited with another of those desolating irruptions to which it had been repeatedly subject during seven hundred years.

*Nadir's*  
*antecedent*  
*career* The Persian dynasty of the Sofis, which had lasted for two centuries the usual term of Asiatic monarchies, was subverted in 1722 by the Ghiljes, the most powerful of the Afghan tribes. Shah Hussein, the last of that royal line, was blockaded by them in his capital, Ispahan, which had then attained the summit of pro-

penly, and contained a population of 600 000. After the besieged had endured the greatest extremities of misery and want, the king with his court went out attired in deep mourning and gave himself up to Mahmood, the victorious chief, and placed the diadem on his brows. Mahmood, after a reign of two years, rendered execrable by his cruelties left all his conquests to his son Asruf. Nadir Shah, the greatest warrior Persia has produced since the days of Darius, was the son of a shepherd of Khorasan. His enterprising spirit led him to collect a band of freebooters, their number increased with their success, and he soon found himself at the head of a formidable force, with which he freed Khorasan from the Abdallee Afghans who had overrun it. The Ghulje king of Persia was the next to feel his power, and was obliged to resign all his father's conquests in Persia. Nadir, after his first success, raised Thamasp the son of the dethroned Sofi monarch to the throne, but when he had expelled the Turks and the Russians from the provinces they had occupied and restored independence and dignity to his native land, he ascended the throne himself, on the assumed importunity of a hundred thousand of his subjects,—nobles, soldiers, and peasants,—assembled together on a vast plain to offer him the crown.

He invades Afghanistan and India, I 37-38

To find employment for his troops and to gratify the resentment of his countrymen, he carried his arms into the country of the Ghuljes, by whom they had been oppressed, but Candahar was besieged for a twelvemonth before it surrendered. While engaged in the siege, Nadir sent a messenger to Delhi to demand the surrender of some of his fugitive subjects. The court was at the time distracted by the claims of Bajee Rao, and the demand was neglected. A second messenger was assassinated at Jellalabad. The government of India had from time immemorial been in the habit of paying an annual subsidy to the highlanders who occupy the passes between Cabul and Peshawar, and who were in a position to arrest the progress of any invader. In the confusion of the times the

to be searched and sacked, and spared no cruelty to extort confessions of wealth. Of the infamous Sidut Ali he demanded the whole of the sum which he had said his soubah was able to furnish, and the traitor terminated his existence by swallowing poison. The governors of the other provinces were likewise laid under heavy contributions. Having thus subjected Delhi to fifty eight days of ruthless pillage, and exhausted, as he supposed, the wealth of the country, he prepared to take his departure with plunder estimated at thirty two crores of rupees. Before his departure he reseatd Mahomed Shah on the throne, but annexed all the countries west of the Indus to the crown of Persia. He likewise sent a circular to all the princes of India to acquaint them that he was moving to the conquest of other regions, and had replaced his dear brother Mahomed Shah on the throne of his extensive empire, and that if any report of their rebellion reached his ears, he would return and blot their names out of the book of creation.

diate vicinity of the metropolis new chiefs were, as the Mahomedan historian remarks, "beating the drum of independence." Towards the close of Aurungzebe's reign a tribe of soodras called Jauts emigrated from the banks of the Indus to the districts lying between Agra and Jeypore, and founded their capital, Bhurtpore, out of the plunder of the emperor's camp equipage, and their leader, Chooramun did not scruple to set the imperial authority at defiance. To the north of Delhi, a tribe of Rohilla Afghans, recently embodied under a circumscribed Hindoo, were rapidly rising into importance. The house of Baber had accomplished the cycle of its existence, and the sceptre of India was about to pass into other hands. Having thus reached the verge of a new era we turn to the origin and progress of the strangers to whose lot that sceptre was to fall though at this period they were engaged in the peaceful pursuits of commerce and dreaming of nothing so little as the establishment of an empire in India. The main stream of this narrative will now follow the fortunes of the British power, to which the history of the various kingdoms which rose upon the decay of the Moguls will be subsidiary. But, it may be useful to bear in mind, that with the exception of the Rajpoot chiefs and the puppet emperor at Delhi, not one of the kingdoms which were subsequently absorbed in the British empire had been in existence even a quarter of a century when the English first took up arms in Hindostan.

## CHAPTER VIII

### RISE AND PROGRESS OF THE ENGLISH, 1600—1756

The Eng<sup>l</sup> : in  
India bef<sup>o</sup> re  
1600

THE rich trade which the Portuguese had established in the East during the sixteenth century served to quicken the spirit of enterprise which Queen Elizabeth laboured to foster in England, and her subjects were impatient to share in its profits. The splendour and

successful voyages of Drake, Cavendish, and other English navigators to the eastern hemisphere tended to augment the national ardour. In 1583, Fitch and three other adventurers started on a commercial expedition to India, by way of Aleppo and Bagdad. They carried letters of introduction from the queen to the emperor Akbar, soliciting his kind offices to her subjects who were proceeding from a foreign country to trade in his dominions, and offering the same kindness in return to any of his subjects who might visit England. Fitch travelled through the length and breadth of Hindustan and was struck with the splendour of the court, the grandeur of the nobility, and the magnitude and opulence of the cities. The information which he collected regarding the commodities of the country, and the industry and wealth of the people, opened up visions of a lucrative commerce to his fellow-countrymen. A petition was accordingly presented to the Queen for permission to send three vessels to India, but the political caution of her ministers rendered it fruitless.

rupees in bullion. It sailed from Torbay on the 2nd of May, 1601, with letters of introduction from the Queen to the princes to whose kingdoms it might resort. The new Company had no distinct knowledge of any part of India, and the fleet sailed to Acheen, in the island of Sumatra, where a cargo of pepper was obtained, and a treaty concluded with the Malay chiefs. In the Straits of Malacca, Captain Lancaster captured a Portuguese vessel of 900 tons, richly laden with calicoes and spices, and then steered for Bantam, the most flourishing port in the island of Java, where he erected a factory and left agents. The expedition returned to England in September, 1603, with a satisfactory profit to the adventurers. During the following ten years eight voyages were undertaken, which gave a return of from one to two hundred per cent. In 1608 the factors at Bantam represented that the calicoes of India were in great request in the islands of the Archipelago, and a fleet was therefore despatched, for the first time, to the coast of India, but the object was defeated by the jealousy of the Portuguese.

**The Portuguese power** The Portuguese at this period enjoyed a commercial supremacy in the eastern hemisphere, and were anxious to prevent the intrusion of rivals. They held little territory on the continent of India, but they completely monopolised its foreign trade. By the possession of Aden and Ormuz they entirely commanded the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf. They occupied the coasts of Ceylon, and had no rival on the Malabar and Coromandel coasts. They were paramount on the Malay seaboard, and held possession of the Moluccas, or spice islands. They had erected a factory at Macao, and enjoyed the exclusive trade of China. Their well fortified settlement at Hooghly, second only to that of Goa, rendered them a most formidable power in Bengal. It was with this great mercantile monopoly that the English had now to enter into competition. In 1611 the East India Company sent two vessels to Surat, and the Portuguese prepared to resist their advance with four ships, the largest

the Dutch for a share in the spice trade of the eastern islands, or on the massacre at Amboyna, which continued for thirty years to rankle in the minds of Englishmen, till Cromwell compelled the Dutch to make satisfaction for it. In like manner we pass over the contests with the Portuguese for the possession of Ormuz and the trade with Persia, which, when obtained, was not found worth retaining. We move on to the establishment of the Company in Bengal. In 1620 two of their factors visited Patna, but met with little <sup>The English in</sup> encouragement. In 1634 a firman appears to have <sup>Bengal, 1640 28</sup> been obtained from the emperor, Shah Jehan, for the establishment of a factory in Bengal, but the resistance of Rodrigues at Hooghly was yet fresh, and the residence of their agents was restricted to the port of Pyley, near Balasore. Two years after, the daughter of the emperor, who was then encamped in the Deccan, having fallen ill, the vizier dispatched an express to the English factory at Surat to request the services of a surgeon. Mr Boughton, attached to one of the ships, was accordingly sent to the imperial camp, and having succeeded in restoring the princess to health, was desired to name his own reward. In a spirit of the noblest patriotism, he stated that the only remuneration he would accept was an order granting his countrymen the privilege of



second opportunity of promoting the interests of his country. At his request the prince granted letters patent to the English to establish factories at Balasore and Hooghly.

The first factory of the Company on the Coromandel coast was opened at Masulipatam, from whence it was removed, in 1625, to Armegam. The trade was not however found to be remunerative, and Mr Day, the superintendent, accepted the invitation of the raja of Chun deignee, the last representative of the great Hindoo dynasty of Beejumnagar, to remove the establishment to his territories. In a small village on the coast a plot of ground was marked out, on which, in 1639, he erected the factory which afterwards expanded into the great city of Madras. To give confidence to the native merchants, it was surrounded by a fortification, with twelve guns, and in honour of the champion of England was called Fort St. George.

For fifteen years after this period there is no event in the transactions of the Company worthy of attention. The unsettled state of England during the civil wars was not favourable to the interests of commerce, and the trade of the Company languished. The investments were small, and the profits smaller, but as soon as domestic tranquillity was restored under the Protector, an attempt was made by a body of men, calling themselves the "Merchant Adventurers," to break up the exclusive privileges of the East India Company. The arguments they employed for free trade appear at the present day to be unanswerable, but their validity was not likely to be admitted by those who had devised the Navigation Act. Cromwell referred the question to the Council of State, who recommended him to confirm the privileges of the Company, and a new charter was accordingly granted to that body. There can be little doubt that, in the circumstances of the times, the decision of Cromwell was sound, and that the power of a corporation was essential to the maintenance of a trade exposed to the caprice and the hostility of the native powers of the East. The Merchant Adventurers were therefore incor-

porated with the old Company, and the two bodies united in soliciting a confirmation of their privileges from Charles the Second at the Restoration. A charter was granted on the 3rd of April, 1661, which, in addition to the usual commercial privileges, conferred the right to make peace and to wage war with any people in India not Christians, to seize and deport to England all unlicensed Englishmen, and to administer justice. The Company, which existed only for trade, was thus invested with the most essential attributes of government.

**Acquisition of Bombay 1662.** In the succeeding year Charles II married the daughter of the king of Portugal, and received the island and dependencies of Bombay as part of her dower. A grand expedition was dispatched to India by the Crown, under the Earl of Marlborough, to receive possession of the settlements, but after having held it for six years, the ministers of the Crown found that it cost more than it yielded and ceded it to the Company, under whose fostering care the population has increased from 10,000 to 500,000, and the trade has risen from a few lacs of rupees to thirty crores.

**First tea in England, 1669.** The year, in which the Company acquired the island of Bombay, is also memorable as that in which the first order for the purchase of tea was sent out by them to the East. Tea had been used at the period of the civil war as a "regalia in high treatments and entertainments, and presents to princes and grandees," and was sold as high as 100 shillings the pound weight, or 100 rupees the seer. But in 1657, Thomas Garraway, the founder of Garraway's coffee house, which still exists in London, was the first to sell it "in drink made according to the directions of the most knowing merchants and travellers into the eastern countries, and many noblemen, merchants, and physicians resorted to his house in Change Alley to drink the drink thereof. He sold it at a rate varying from 16s to 50s the pound. But it was not till ten years after that the Company issued an order for "100 lbs weight of the best tea they could get to be sent home by their ships." The consumption

in England has increased from one hundred pounds weight to more than eighty millions of pounds

Turning now to the progress of events in Bengal  
Events in Bengal, 1640—1680 With the exception of two brief intervals, the administration of the province was, during thirty two years in the hands of two princes of the imperial family, Soorah Khan and Shaista Khan, under whose mild and beneficent rule it enjoyed repose and increased in prosperity. Shaista Khan is charged by the factors of the Company with insatiable rapacity, but they winced under every demand, however petty, and they did not deny that he fostered their commerce and obtained many favours for them from Delhi. In 1664, the French under the auspices of the great minister Colbert, established an East India Company in the hope of participating in the trade which had enriched England and Holland. Soon after a large French fleet sailed up the Hooghly and formed a settlement at Chandernagor. Three years after, the Dutch whose trade had been confined to Balasore, were permitted to establish a factory at Hooghly, but eventually fixed on Chinsurah two miles distant, as the seat of their traffic, and erected a fortification capable of resisting the native powers which they named Fort Augustus. About the same period the Danes entered the river, and embarked in the trade of the country. Bengal thus blessed with tranquility and enriched by foreign commerce, became the most flourishing province in the empire. The general trade of the Company, which had been drooping for many years, received a new impulse from the rapid increase of prosperity in England after the Restoration, and their exports rose from 10 lacs in 1656 to 120 lacs of rupees in 1682. The ambitious fortunes to which this trade gave birth in England created a brood of interlopers, and gave rise to disputes which at one time threatened to embroil the two Houses of Parliament.

Shaista Khan had been relieved from the government of Bengal at his own request and the Company's agents in Calcutta took advantage of his return to the

court to solicit a perpetual firman to exonerate them from the necessity of taking out a fresh firman on the arrival of every new governor, for which they were required to pay most heavily. It was granted through his intercession, and received in Calcutta with a salute of 300 guns. The trade of Bengal had moreover acquired such importance that the Court of Directors who managed the affairs of the Company raised it to the dignity of a separate and independent Presidency, and Mr Hedges, the first governor, entered Hooghly with a body guard of a corporal and twenty European soldiers. But these prospects were soon to be darkened by the wild ambition of the Court of Directors and the folly of their officers. Mr Peacock, the chief of the factory at Patna, had remained neutral during a local *emeute*, and was charged by the Mogul governor with complicity, and placed in confinement, from which he was not released without much difficulty. The Company's lucrative trade in saltpetre was stopped at the same time. A rival East India Company had been formed in London under high auspices and great efforts were made to obtain a charter for it, but the old Company was still patronized by the Court, and was endowed with the additional powers of admiralty jurisdiction, which authorized them to seize and confiscate the property of their rivals abroad. They now solicited the permission of the viceroy to erect a fort at the mouth of the Hooghly, or on its banks that they might more effectually intercept the vessels of interlopers. The representative of the Mogul had a horror of European fortifications, and, if he took any interest in the question of rival companies, must naturally have desired that the number of investments on which he could levy contributions, should be increased. The request was therefore refused, and not without reason, for such a fortification would have given the Company the absolute control of the port and of the commerce of the province. But the viceroy went further, and imposed a duty of  $3\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. on their goods notwithstanding the exemption accorded by the imperial firman.

War with the  
Moguls, 1683.

Such demands had been often made before, and as often eluded by a liberal donative, but the Last India Company had become inflated with an idea of their own power and importance, and determined to extort redress by going to war with the Mogul empire. They applied to James II for permission to retaliate the injuries of which they complained, and fitted out the largest armament which had ever been dispatched from England to the East. Admiral Nicholson was sent out with twelve ships of war, carrying 200 pieces of cannon and a body of 600 men, to be reinforced by 400 from Madras. His instructions were to seize and fortify Cluttagong, for which purpose 200 additional guns were placed on board, to demand the cession of the surrounding territory, to conciliate the zemindars, to establish a mint, and to enter into a treaty with the raja of Arracan—in short, to found a kingdom. But these ambitious projects were destined to a severe disappointment. The fleet was dispersed during the voyage, and several of the vessels, instead of steering for Cluttagong, entered the Hooghly, and

hamlet of Chuttanuddy, about twenty six miles down the river, on the site of which subsequently arose the magnificent capital of British India. There the viceroy renewed and spun out the negotiations till his troops could be assembled, when he marched down to attack the English encampment, and Job Charnock retired with his soldiers and establishments to the island of Ingelee, at the mouth of the river. It was a low and deadly swamp covered with long grass, and destitute of any fresh water. It appears incredible that a man of Charnock's experience, who had been thirty years in India, and who must have known the nature of that jungle, should have selected the most unhealthy spot in Bengal for an entrenched camp. The Mogul general allowed him to remain there without molestation, well knowing that disease would spare his soldiers the use of their swords. In three months one half of the troops were dead, and the other half fit only for hospital.

General Stan-  
June 1, 1693

At this juncture, when the prospects of the English were reduced to the lowest ebb, the viceroy made unexpected overtures to Charnock. It appears that simultaneously with the dispatch of Admiral Nicholson's expedition from England, the Court of Directors instructed Sir John Child to withdraw their establishments from Surat and the neighbouring ports, and to commence hostilities on the western coast. An English fleet was therefore employed in blockading the Mogul harbours, and the pilgrim ships were captured. The bigotted Aurungzebe hastened to seek a reconciliation with those who commanded the highway to Mecca, and orders were issued to the governors of provinces to make terms with them. Charnock returned to Chuttanuddy, and the pacification was on the point of being completed when the appearance of Captain Heath rekindled the flame. The Court of Directors on hearing of the failure of Admiral Nicholson's expedition, instead of folding up their ambitious project, determined to prosecute it with increased vigour, and sent out reinforcements under Captain Heath. Immediately on his arrival he disallowed the treaty then pending, and having em-

barbed on board the ships under his command, lying off Chuttanuttty, the whole of the company's officers, civil and military, proceeded to Baisore, which he bombarded and burnt. He then sailed to Chittagong, but finding the fortifications stronger than he had anticipated, crossed the bay, and landed the whole of the company's establishments at Madras, and not a vestige was left of the commercial fabric which had been reared in Bengal by fifty years of painful exertion.

Reconciliation  
with the  
emperor 1690

This fresh insult exasperated the haughty spirit of the emperor, and he issued orders for the extirpation of the English, and the confiscation of their property. His orders were literally obeyed, and the English possessions were reduced to the fortified towns of Madras and Bombay. Sir John Child sent two gentlemen from Bombay to the emperor's encampment at Beejapore to propose terms of accommodation. Aurungzebe never allowed his passions to interfere with his interests. He was aware that his dominions benefited greatly by the commerce of the English, the value of which exceeded a crore of rupees a year, that their ships of war could sweep his coasts and extinguish his navy, and, above all, that it was in their power to prevent the resort of pilgrims to the tomb of the Prophet. He was therefore induced to accept the proposition of the commissioners, and directed the viceroy of Bengal to invite Mr Charnock back to the province.

Shaista Khan, who had now governed Bengal for twenty years, solicited permission to retire, and quitted Dacca in 1689. On his departure he closed one of the gates of the city, and placed an inscription over it to commemorate the fact that the price of rice had been reduced during his administration to 320 seers the rupee, and he interdicted any future governor from opening it till rice was again sold at the same rate. It consequently continued closed for thirty-six years.

Establishment of  
Calcutta, 1690. Shaista Khan was succeeded by Ibrahim Khan, the son of Ali Mardan, whose name is perpetuated

by his canals. The new viceroy, who was partial to the English, lost no time in inviting Charnock to re-establish the Company's factories in Bengal. Charnock, however, resented the humiliating as well as vague terms in which Aurungzebe had conceded the restoration of the settlements of the English, in consequence,—so ran the proclamation,—of their having “made a most humble and submissive petition that the crimes they had committed should be forgiven.” He replied that he could not accept the proposal unless the emperor granted a specific firman for Bengal, setting forth the precise terms on which they were to carry on their trade in future. The viceroy sent him a second communication, stating that several months must elapse before the firman could be received from the imperial Court, and importuned him to return without delay, offering a compensation of 80,000 rupees for the goods which had been plundered. Charnock could not resist this friendly appeal, and embarked for Bengal with the commercial establishments of the Company, and on the 24th of August, 1690, hoisted the standard of England on the banks of the Hooghly, and laid the foundation of the city of CALCUTTA. But he did not survive this memorable event more than two years. His name is perpetuated at Barrackpore, which the natives still continue to designate Achanul, and a simple monument in the churchyard of St John's, in Calcutta, marks the grave of the man who founded the “city of palaces.” It was not however, till eight years after that the agent of the Company was enabled to obtain permission, by a present of 16,000 rupees to the viceroy, to purchase the three villages of Calcutta, Chuttanatty, and Govindpore, on which the city stands; though the Court of Directors did not fail to remark that “they considered the price very high.”

Ambition of the Court quenched. The sudden spasm of ambition which seized the Court of Directors, in 1695, and induced them to fit out this grand armament to establish a political power in India, did not, however, last more than five years. The dying indication of it appears in their despatch of 1699. “The



increase of our revenue is the subject of our care as much as our trade, 'tis that must maintain our force when twenty accidents may interrupt our trade, 'tis that must make us a nation in India, without that we are but as a great number of interlopers, united by his Majesty's charter, at only to trade where nobody of power thinks it their interest to oppose us, and upon this account it is that the wise Dutch, in all their general advices that we have seen, write ten paragraphs concerning their government, their civil and military policy, warfare, and the increase of their revenue, for one paragraph they write concerning their trade.' But adversity was not lost upon the Court of Directors, from this time forward, and for more than fifty years, their views were confined so exclusively to the pursuits of commerce that in the year 1754, only three years before the battle of Plassey, which laid the foundation of their magnificent empire, they continued to inculcate on their servants, the necessity of "avoiding an expensive manner of living, and of considering themselves as the representatives of a body of merchants, for which a decent frugality would be much more in character."

Fortifications of  
Calcutta, 1693

After the establishment of the factory at Calcutta, the Court of Directors were anxious to place it in a state of defence. They felt that their existence in India during the recent convulsion had been owing solely to the fortresses of Madras and Bombay, which were impregnable to the assaults of any native force. Those forts had been erected before the Mogul authority was extended over the territory in which they were situated, but any increase of such defences was prohibited by the policy of the empire. Ibrahim Khan, the viceroy of Bengal, resisted all the importunities of the Company's chief to fortify Calcutta, though it was backed by an offer of 40 000 rupees. But five years after that settlement had been established an unexpected event led to the gratification of this wish. Sobha Sing, a landed proprietor of Burdwan, irritated by the proceedings of his superior, created a rebellion, and invited Ibrahim Khan, the

tude of competitors, but the Company were enabled to obtain a confirmation of their exclusive privileges from the Crown in 1693. A few months after this event the House of Commons passed a resolution to the effect "that it is the right of all Englishmen to trade to the East Indies, or any part of the world, unless prohibited by Act of Parliament." This gave fresh animation to the interlopers, and many of them turned pirates, attacking the Mogul ships and plundering the Mecca pilgrims. In revenge for these injuries, the Mogul governor of Surat arrested fifty three of the Company's servants, and put them in irons, and they were not liberated without the payment of heavy contributions. In 1698 the interlopers, and others who were eager to participate in the trade of the East, presented a petition to Parliament for a charter, and accompanied it with the tempting offer of accommodating the treasury with a loan of two millions sterling, at eight per cent. Their exertions were successful, and the old Company, who had established British interests in India by a century of labour and expense, being unable to offer more than 700,000*l*, were ordered to wind up their affairs and expire in three years. But the rivalry of the two bodies was found, even in the first year, to inflict the most serious injury on the national interests in India. At Surat the gentlemen on the staff of the old Company were seized by the agents of the new body, and conveyed through the streets like malefactors, with their hands bound behind them, and delivered as prisoners into the custody of the Mogul governor. In every market the competition of the two bodies created a scarcity, and enhanced the price of goods. The officers of the native government, courted by two parties, received bribes from each, and oppressed both. "Two East India Companies," exclaimed the old Court of Directors, "can no more subsist without destroying each other than two kings regnant at the same time in the same kingdom, that now a civil battle was to be fought between them, and two or three years must end this war, as the old or the new must give way."

fleet. A squadron of four ships of war was sent against them under Commodore Warren, but one of his vessels was wrecked, and so lax was the naval discipline of the period, that the other three, instead of going in pursuit of the pirates, returned to England laden with cargoes of private merchandize. The emperor, on hearing of these renewed piracies, ordered the ambassador to furnish security for the restoration of the captured vessels, and to enter into an engagement to prevent all piracies in future. With this unreasonable request he of course refused to comply, on which he was informed that he knew his way back to England. He left the camp after seven months of fruitless negotiation, with a letter and a sword from Aurungzebe to the King of England, and thus ended a mission which had cost the new Company nearly seven lacs of rupees. The embassy itself was a mistake. One of Cromwell's ambassadors—a sixty four gun ship which spoke all languages, and never took a refusal—would have been far more efficacious with this unprincipled court. Sir John Gayer and the other servants of the new Company at Surat would not then have been consigned to a jail as a retaliation for piracies they had no means of preventing.

Union of the  
Companies, 102.

The King, the Parliament, and the nation, came at length sensible of the fatal results of the rivalry they had created, and the two Companies were amalgamated by universal consent, under the title of the "United Company of Merchants trading to the East," the indenture of which passed the Great Seal on the 22nd of July, 1702. On the completion of this union the Court of Directors, formed by the selection of an equal number from each Company, wrote to their representative at Calcutta, that "now they were established by a Parliamentary authority they deemed it a duty incumbent on them to England and their posterity to propagate the future interests of the nation in India with vigour." They directed their attention to the building of the town of Calcutta, and gave minute directions regarding its streets and houses. They completed the fort, surrounded it with an

entrenchment, and mounted it with cannon. The military commandant of Hooghly was, on the occasion of a dispute with the Company's chief, deterred by its strength from attacking it, and the native merchants who resorted to it in large numbers were inspired with increased confidence. The Court of Directors then remodelled their Indian establishment, fixing the salary of the President at 300*l*, of the eight members of council at 40*l*, of the junior merchants at 30*l*, the factors at 1*l*, and the writers at 5*l*, but these inadequate salaries were eked out by the addition of commons, an annual supply of Madeira, and the privilege of private trade. The trade proved so lucrative that we find the Directors soon after this period, complain that even the junior servants sat down to dinner with a band of music, and rode out in a coach and four.

Con-esta-wi-1 the  
vicero-1 00—  
1 36

From this time forward to the battle of Plassey the history of Calcutta is little else but a chronicle of the exactions of the native government and the resistance, alternately bold and feeble, of the Company's agents. On one occasion the Directors complain that the extortions by the Fouzdar of Hooghly, who "was merely the jackal of the prince and the dewan to discover the prey, had made a great hole in their cash." Then, again, they remonstrate against the exorbitant demand of 30 000 rupees by the nabob—that is, the viceroy—and recommend greater discretion to their agents. Two years after, the nabob makes a new demand of 60 000 rupees, but is pacified with half that sum. The year after, the sum of 22 000 rupees is "squeezed out of them by the Patna king. Again in 1717, they complain that 'the horse leeches of Moorshedabad had been practising on their servants. "It was actual war which made Aurungzebe restore their privileges." Their servants are therefore ordered to stop, but not to seize, the vessels of the Mogul, "for reprisals, like extreme unction, must never be used except in the last extremity." "They never thought of carrying their contests so far as an open rupture with the viceroy of the whole country, though it might be expedient to

speak and look big with the under governors.' But this brought them no respite. Soon after, their native agent was 'chubooked,' or flogged at Moorshedabad to extort a bond of 45,000 rupees from him, which was commuted to 20,000 rupees. Even so late as 1750, the President, having seized and confiscated the vessel of an Armenian interloper, was fined a lac and a half of rupees to compensate the merchant, of which, however, he never received more than 20,000 rupees. It was amidst the constant recurrence of these outrageous demands that the President and council in Calcutta contrived to carry on the trade of the Company till the young nabob of Moorshedabad filled up the measure of iniquity by the sack of Calcutta and the atrocity of the Black Hole, and Clive marched up to Moorshedabad and seated a nabob of his own on the throne of the three provinces.

**Moorshed Koolie** In the year 1702 Meer Jaffer was appointed  
**Ahan, 102** dewan of Bengal, and eventually viceroy of the

three soubahs of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa. He was the son of a poor brahmin in the Deccan, and was purchased and circumcised by a Persian merchant of Ispahan, on whose death he was manumitted. He then entered the public service, where his talents attracted the notice of Aurungzebe and led eventually to his being intrusted with the finances of Bengal. At the same time he was dignified with the title of Moorshed Koolie Khan, which was perpetuated in the new capital which he founded, Moorshedabad.

**From 1715 to** He manifested no little jealousy of the growing  
**Delhi, 1715.** power of the Company, and interfered to such an extent with their trade that the President was induced to send an embassy to Delhi to seek a redress of grievances. Two of the senior officers in the service were selected for this office, but their appeal was thwarted at every point by the agents of the Bengal viceroy, and not less by the profligate courtiers of Ferokhsere. At length, however, their mission was unexpectedly crowned with success when they were on the eve of abandoning it. The emperor, as stated in a former

chapter, was betrothed to the daughter of Ajeet Sing, the raja of Joudhpore, whom Hussein Ali had brought with him to the court. But the marriage was interrupted by a disease from which the imperial physicians were unable to relieve Ferokshere. The surgeon of the embassy, Mr Hamilton was called in and effected a complete cure. He was desired to name his own recompense, and, with the same feeling of patriotism which had distinguished Mr Boughton, he asked only for the concessions which the British envoys had hitherto solicited in vain. His request was granted, and thirty four patents embracing the different objects of the memorial were issued in the Emperor's name and authenticated by the imperial seal. The privileges now obtained were, that a *dastak*, or pass, signed by the President should exempt the goods it covered from examination by the native officers of government, that the mint at Moorshedabad should be employed three days in the week in coining money for the Company, that all

with the ryots, to the exclusion of all middlemen. To facilitate the collection of the public revenue Moorshed Koollee modified this system and divided the province into *chuklas*, over each of which he appointed an officer to collect the rents and remit them to the treasury at Moorshedabad. It was these officers, who, in process of time, claimed zemindary rights, imperceptibly enlarged their power, and having assumed the title of *raja*, made their office hereditary. The viceroy, who considered a Mahomedan a sieve, which retained nothing, and a Hindoo a sponge, which might be squeezed at pleasure, employed none but Hindoos in these financial duties. Thus will account for the singular fact that, at the period of the battle of Plassy, all the zemindary *raja*s of Bengal were Hindoos, while the government itself was Mahomedan. The viceroy was stern and oppressive in matters of revenue. Defaulting zemindars were subject to torture, and some were dragged through a pond filled with insufferable ordure, which was called, in derision, *byloont*, or paradise. Before appointing these fiscal officers he caused the lands to be surveyed, and fixed the assessment at 142,00,000 rupees, of which sum 109,00,000 rupees were punctually remitted to Delhi year by year. The viceroy himself accompanied this convoy of treasure the first stage out of Moorshedabad. The whole expenditure of government was covered by the remaining 33,00,000 rupees, but so tranquil was the province that 2,000 cavalry and 4,000 infantry were found sufficient to maintain the public authority.

Moorshed Koollee died in 1725, and was succeeded by his son-in-law Soojah-ood-deen, a Turkoman, who was confirmed by the emperor in the government of Bengal and Orissa, while that of Behar was conferred on another. He administered the government for fourteen years, and punctually remitted the annual tribute to Delhi. During these two reigns the sum abstracted from the resources of this flourishing province and squandered at the capital exceeded thirty crores of rupees. Soojah augmented his army to 25,000, and adopted a more magnificent style at his court than his frugal father-in-law. The only event of any

Soojah-ood  
deen. 1725.

note during his reign was the destruction of the Ostend East India Company established by the emperor of Germany at the factory of Banky-bazar, on the Hooghly, opposite Chander nagore. The settlement of these interlopers was regarded with feelings of intense jealousy by the Dutch, and more particularly by the English, who declared their intention to "cut up the Ostender's trade by the roots and not simply to lop off the branches." One of their ships was captured by an English vessel which blockaded the Hooghly. The emperor of Germany was induced, by powerful remonstrances, to withdraw the charter, and a bribe of 320,000 rupees from the English and Dutch induced the viceroy to send a force against Banky-bazar, which fell after a gallant defence, and the Ostenders were chased out of Bengal.



marching back at his leisure to Moorshedabad with a small body of troops, when he received intelligence that the Mahrattas were rapidly advancing with 12,000 predatory horse to levy contributions in Bengal, and the difficulties of his reign began

We turn now to the proceedings of the Mahrattas after the departure of Nizam Shah. It was a fortunate circumstance for India that Bajee Rao was prevented from taking advantage of the confusion of the times by the necessity of watching the movements of his formidable rivals, the Guickwar of Guzerat and the Bhonslay of Berar. Parsojee Bhonslay was originally a private horseman of Satara, who raised himself to notice in that age of adventure, and was entrusted with the charge of collecting the Mahratta dues in the province of Berar, where he founded the Mahratta state of Nagpore. At the period when Holkar and Sindia were only commanders in the service of the Peshwa, Roghoojee Bhonslay, who had succeeded his cousin Parsojee, was in command of a powerful force of his own, with large independent resources for its support. While the Nizam was besieged, as already stated, at Bhopal, he resisted the orders of the Peshwa to join the Mahratta standard, and proceeded on a plundering expedition to the province of Allahabad. Bajee Rao resented this intrusion into his own exclusive quarry, and sent an army to ravage Berar, but it was defeated by Roghoojee. That leader was now sufficiently strong to entertain a jealousy of the ascendancy which the Peshwa had acquired in the Mahratta councils, and was intriguing to supplant him, in which design he was eagerly seconded by the Guickwar. The difficulties of Bajee Rao's position were relieved by his own tact. Roghoojee was persuaded to take the command of an expedition to the Carnatic, consisting of more than 50,000 troops. During his absence Bajee Rao attacked Nazir Jung the second son of the Nizam, but was repulsed with great vigour. The war was protracted for many months, chiefly to the disadvantage of the Peshwa, and both parties, wearied

with a fruitless struggle, at length agreed to an accommodation. The Peshwa, dispirited by his ill success and overwhelmed by his debts, started for the north, but expired on the banks of the Nerbudda on the 28th of April, 1740. During the twenty years in which he wielded the power of the Mahratta confederacy he raised it to the highest position in India, and his power was equally felt on the banks of the Coleroon and of the Jumna. The impulse and the confidence he gave to the ambition of his countrymen continued to animate them after his decease to fresh conquests, and in the course of twenty years rendered them supreme throughout India. He left three sons—Balajee Rao, Roghoo-nath Rao, afterwards the notorious Raghoba, and the illegitimate Shumshere Bahadoor to whom he bequeathed his possessions in Bundelkund.

Succeeded by  
Balajee Rao Balajee Rao was placed in his father's seat, notwithstanding the strenuous opposition of the Bhonslay, and obtained, from his feeble sovereign, a grant of Salsette, Basscin, and the districts recently wrested from the Portuguese in the Concan, as well as the exclusive right of levying contributions to the north of the Nerbudda, with the exception of Guzerat, and thus brought him into direct collision with Roghoojee. While that chieftain was engaged in the Carnatic, Bhaskur pundit, who had been left to manage his principality, entered Behar with a body of 12,000 horse, and, emerging from the Ramghur hills, spread desolation over the western districts of Bengal. Ali verdy was returning from Cuttack with a slender force when the Mahratta commander encountered him, and demanded the immediate payment of ten lacs of rupees, and, on its being indignantly refused, enveloped the Mogul army with his horse, capturing its tents, baggage, and artillery, and reduced the viceroy to the humiliation of offering the payment he had previously refused. But the Mahratta now raised his demand to a hundred lacs, and Ali verdy resolved to run every risk rather than submit to the exaction. With great gallantry he

fought his way to Cutwa, where he considered himself secure from any further attacks. The rains had by this time commenced in Bengal and the Mahratta army prepared to return to Berar, but this resolution was opposed by Meer Hubeeb, who represented the folly of throwing away so rich a prize as Bengal without an effort. Hubeeb was a native of Sheraz, in Persia, and had been a broker at Hooghly, though unable to read and write. He entered the service of the viceroy, and by his distinguished talents and spirit of enterprize rose high in his estimation, but having been taken prisoner by Bhaskur pundit was induced to accept service with the Mahrattas, and for eight years was the soul of their expeditions and the cause of incalculable misery to Bengal. On the present occasion he obtained a large force from Bhaskur and advancing against Moorshedabad, before Ali verdy could come to the rescue, plundered the suburbs and despoiled the banking house of Jugut Sett of two crores and a half of rupees. On the appearance of Ali verdy, Meer Hubeeb recrossed the river, and laid waste the country from Bahsore to Rajmahal. He got possession of Hooghly by a stratagem. The wretched inhabitants crowded into the foreign factories, and more especially to Calcutta, for protection from this storm and the President sought permission of the nabob to surround the Company's territory with an intrenchment. It was readily conceded and the work was commenced and prosecuted with vigour, but suspended on the retirement of the enemy. This was the celebrated Mahratta ditch which, though it has disappeared, like the old walls of London, still continues to mark the municipal boundaries of the city, and has fixed on its citizens the sobriquet of the Inhabitants of the Ditch.

Continued Mahratta  
invasions.

Before the close of the rains, Ali verdy crossed the river with the army he had recruited and the Mahratta general was eventually defeated and obliged to evacuate the province. Roghoojee who had returned from the Carnatic expedition, determined to support his pretensions

in Bengal, and entered the province with a large army. On the first appearance of the Mahrattas, Ali verdy had applied for aid to the court of Delhi, and the emperor invoked the succour of the Peshwa, offering him an assignment on the Bengal treasury, and a confirmation of the grant of Malwa. Balyee Rao, with his old grudge against Roghoojee, readily accepted the offer, and marched with a large force through Allahabad and Behar to the gates of Moorshedabad, where he is said to have exacted a crore of rupees from Ali verdy as the price of his services, after which he marched against Roghoojee, defeated his army, and despoiled him of the plunder he had required. Soon after, the two Mahratta chiefs found that their views would be most effectually promoted by coming to an understanding. The Peshwa agreed to assign the right to levy contributions from Oude, Behar, Bengal, and Orissa, to Roghoojee, who agreed, on his part, not to interfere with any of the plans or acquisitions of the Peshwa. The next year, 1744, Roghoojee sent Bhaskur pundit to renew his ravages in Bengal, when Ali verdy inveigled him to an interview, and by an act of the basest treachery caused him to be assassinated, upon which his army dispersed.

Rebellion of  
Mustapha, 1745

Thus crime did not long remain unavenged. The next year witnessed the revolt of his great general, Mustapha Khan, who had been employed to decoy the Mahratta general to the fatal conference. Mustapha was the head of the Afghan troops who formed the strength of the Bengal army, and it was chiefly to his talents and valour that Ali verdy was indebted for his elevation. The government of Behar, which had been promised him, was refused by the viceroy, and he marched into that province with an army of 8 000 horse and a large body of infantry, and, at the same time, invited the Mahrattas to invade Bengal anew. The viceroy, menaced by this double attack, manifested the utmost vigour, though then verging on seventy, and took the field with the Afghan generals who still remained faithful to him. Mustapha was at length defeated near Jugudeshpore and slain, and his body was quartered and exposed on the

walls of Patna The Mahrattas who were advancing to his aid retreated on hearing of his death, but they returned the next year, and, for four successive seasons ravaged all the districts on the right bank of the river The recollection of these devastations was not effaced for generations, and to a late period in the present century the dread of the Burgees, by which name the Mahrattas were designated, continued to haunt the natives from Balasore to Pymahal The viceroy, worn out by the incursions which half a century harassed his wretched subjects and exhausted his own treasury, was compelled, in 1751, to purchase peace by agreeing to an annual payment of twelve lacs of rupees as the Peace with the Mahrattas, 181 *chout* of Bengal and the cession of the province of Orissa The *chout* ceased, as a matter of course, seven years after, when British authority became paramount in Bengal, but the province continued in the possession of the Nagpore family for half a century

had two daughters; one married to his nephew, Mortiz Ali, the most truculent and unprincipled prince in the Deccan, the other to Chunda Sahib, distinguished equally by his talents and his liberality. In 1736 he obtained possession of the impregnable fortress of Trichinopoly by treachery, seized the surrounding country, and extinguished the independence of the reigning family. Soon after came the great Mahratta invasion, under Raghoji's Bhonsly. Dost Ali advanced to meet him, but was defeated and slain. The Mahrattas then proceeded to levy contributions in every direction, until they were bought off with the promise of a crore of rupees, to be paid by instalments by Sufdur Ali, the son of Dost Ali, who now assumed the title of nabob of the Carnatic. During this disruption Chunda Sahib placed his family, for greater security, under the protection of the French at Pondicherry, which led to important results.

The popularity of Chunda Sahib had, however, excited apprehensions in the mind of Sufdur Ali, and it was a part of his compact with the Mahrattas that they should return the next year and extinguish his power, retaining the principality of Trichinopoly for themselves. They came down, accordingly, in 1741 and laid siege to that fort, which Chunda Sahib defended with great skill and valour for three months, but was eventually constrained to capitulate; and as he was considered the ablest and most formidable soldier in the south, he was conveyed to Satara and placed in strict confinement. Morari Rao, the Mahratta chief of Gooty, with 14,000 men, kept possession of the fort and territory of Trichinopoly. A year after, Sufdur Ali was assassinated by Mortiz Ali, who proclaimed himself nabob, but the friends and relatives of the murdered prince withdrew his infant son from Madras, where he had obtained shelter, and raised him to the throne. Meanwhile the Nizam, who had returned from Delhi to the Deccan, resolved to put an end to the anarchy of the Carnatic, and moved down with an army little short of 60,000 horse and 200,000 foot. All parties hastened to make

their submission to this overwhelming force, and the Nizam placed the administration of the province in the hands of one of his old and faithful servants, Anwar-ood deen, as the guardian of the youthful son of Suddur Ali, on whom he engaged to confer the nabobship when he came of age. The

Anwar-ood-deen  
founded a family  
of nabobs of the  
Carnatic, 1740
 youth was soon afterwards assassinated, but Anwar-ood deen is not chargeable with complicity in this crime, though he obtained the benefit of it.

He was placed in the vacant post, and founded the family of the nabobs of Arcot, or of the Carnatic, subsequently so notorious in the history of British India. Sadut-oolah and his son, Dost Ali, had governed the Carnatic for thirty years with great moderation and no little advantage to the people. To them are apparently due the merit of constructing those works of irrigation which diffused fertility through the district. During their reigns the country enjoyed a respite from desolation, and began to flourish. The people, grateful for so unusual a blessing, had contracted a warm attachment to the family, while the nabob of the Nizam was considered an interloper and regarded with a proportionate feeling of antipathy.

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## CHAPTER IX.

### EFFORTS OF THE FRENCH TO ESTABLISH AN EMPIRE IN INDIA 1746—1761

War w. F.  
France, 1746
 We are now entering on a series of events, which, though of little significance at the time, produced the most momentous results, and laid the foundation of European supremacy in India. Up to this time the French and English in India had been engaged only in the pursuits of commerce, and though they were repeatedly at war, during a period of seventy years, in Europe, there was

without any result. The French general, impatient to plant the French flag on the ramparts of Madras, proceeded to Pondicherry to obtain the co-operation of the governor, Dupleix.

He was the son of a farmer general, and was sent in his youth to India, where he embarked in an extensive trade with all the ports of the east, and acquired great wealth. Having been appointed governor of Chandernagore, he enriched it by commerce till it became more than the rival of Calcutta, and left two thousand brick buildings as a monument of his enterprising spirit. He was a man of inordinate ambition and egregious vanity, but at the same time of vast energy and resources. He had been employed for four years in fortifying Pondicherry, when Labourdonnais arrived with plenary powers, but instead of co-operating with him to promote the common interests of the nation, a jealousy of the reputation he might acquire, induced Dupleix to thwart all his projects. But the indomitable zeal of Labourdonnais overcame every obstacle, and his fleet was rapidly equipped for a descent on Madras. On the other hand, the English squadron, sent out for the express purpose of protecting the settlements, was unaccountably withdrawn at this critical juncture, and the commodore abandoned them to their fate.

Labourdonnais, finding the coast clear, lost no time in steering for Madras. That settlement had grown up from an insignificant hamlet in 1610 to a town of 250,000 inhabitants in 1716. The territory extended about five miles along the coast, and a little more than a mile inland. After a century of peaceful commerce, undisturbed by the appearance of any enemy by land or by sea, it was ill prepared for the formidable attack now impending. The fortifications, which had never been strong, were now dilapidated, and the store of ammunition was scanty. Of the 500 Europeans in the town, 200 were soldiers, and few of these had ever seen a shot fired in earnest. On the 15th of September, 1746, Labourdonnais appeared off the town with 1,100 Europeans, 400 Malagases, and 400 sepoys, or native

Capture of  
Madrass  
September 1746.



soldiers, trained and disciplined by Europeans, an expedient which the French were the first in India to adopt. After a bombardment of five days, during which the French did not lose a man, and the English lost only five, and that by the bursting of one of their own bombs, the town and fort were surrendered. The French commander was interdicted by his instructions from retaining any of the settlements he might capture, and he, therefore, held the town to ransom, for the sum of forty-four lacs of rupees, independently of the merchandize, the military and naval stores, and the money belonging to the Company. None of the residents were molested in person or property, and it was agreed that the town should be evacuated by the French troops in three months, and that it should not be again attacked during the war. The success and the moderation of La Bourdonnais only served to inflame the animosity of Dupleix, who protested against the ransom, and declared that the town and factory ought to have been razed to the ground.

enemies he had made in India by his energy and patriotism, were favourably received, his great services were overlooked and he was thrown into the Bastille where he lingered for three years, and died of a broken heart on his liberation.

On the appearance of Labourdonnais army before Madras, the Nabob of the Carnatic, Anwar-ood-deen, sent an agent to Pondicherry to remonstrate on the presumption of the French in attacking a settlement in his dominions which was under his protection. Duplex endeavoured to pacify him by the promise of delivering the town to him when captured that he might enrich himself by its ransom. But after its surrender the Nabob discovered that the promise had been made only to cozen him, and he sent his son with a force of 10 000 men to drive out the French. They advanced with confidence to attack the handful of Europeans, *not exceeding a thousand, whom* Labourdonnais had left to protect the town. But the field pieces of the French fired three or four times a minute while

Defeat of native  
troops by  
result, 1792

Madras The governor and the principal inhabitants were declared prisoners of war and marched down to Pondicherry, where, under pretence of doing them honour, they were marched through the streets, amidst the jeers of fifty thousand spectators Duplex followed up this act of bad faith by laying siege to Fort St David, another settlement of the Company on the Coast, about a hundred miles south of Madras, which was at the time defended only by 200 European troops The English chief solicited the aid of the Nabob of the Carnatic, who was smarting under the disgrace inflicted on his son at Madras, and readily advanced with a large force A French detachment was unexpectedly attacked by the Nabob's general, and seized with a panic, and retired in disorder to Pondicherry with considerable loss Duplex who had a thorough knowledge of the native character, now set himself to detach the Nabob from the English alliance The singular departure of the English fleet in the preceding year, and the arrival of four French vessels with reinforcements, enabled him to decry the one, and to extol the resources of the other An Asiatic prince never considers himself bound by any principle of honour, or even consistency, his own supposed advantage is the only rule of his conduct, and he changes sides without the smallest scruple Duplex succeeded in persuading the Nabob that the English were the weaker party, and the Nabob did not hesitate for a moment to abandon them His son was accordingly sent to Pondicherry to form an alliance with Duplex, by whom he was received with the greatest ostentation, and loaded with presents The French now advanced against St. David a second time with a greater force, but a large fleet was descried in the offing, which proved to be an English armament, and the besiegers retreated rapidly to Pondicherry

From the siege  
of Pondicherry  
1749

This armament, which had been despatched from England for the defence of the Company's settlements, under the command of Admiral Boscawen arrived off Fort St. David on the 31st of August, and was

immediately joined by the vessels of Admiral Griffin. The junction of the two squadrons formed the largest maritime force which had ever been seen in the eastern seas. It consisted of more than thirty vessels, none of which were of less than 500 tons, and thirteen of them men of war of the Line. The English troops now on the Coast comprised in all 3,720 Europeans, 300 topas es and 2,000 sepoys, equal to any enterprise. The Nabob still changing sides as the power of the English or the French appeared to predominate, promised the aid of a body of his troops. Every bosom was beating with the hope that the loss of Madras would be avenged by the capture of Pondicherry, but the English were subjected to a bitter disappointment. The army began its march to that settlement on the 8th of August, and the siege was prosecuted for fifty days but notwithstanding the valour of the officers and men, it was at length disgracefully raised, after more than a thousand European lives had been sacrificed. Seldom, if ever, has any siege in India exhibited more egregious blunders on the part of the commanders. Duplex announced the abandonment of the siege as a magnificent triumph of the French arms, to all the various princes of India, not forgetting even the great Mogul, and he received from all quarters the most flattering compliments on his own ability and the valor of his nation. For the time, the French were regarded as the greatest European power in the Deccan and the English who had not only lost their own settlement, but failed to capture that of their rivals sunk into contempt. Seven days after the retirement of the English force, information was received of the suspension of hostilities in Europe, which ended in the peace of Aix la Chapelle, and Madras was restored to the East India Company.

Effects of the  
two years' war

This war, of little more than two years duration opens a new era in the politics of India. In 1746, neither the English nor the French were viewed by the native rulers in any other light than as ineffective traders. By the end of 1748, they had come out as great military powers.

whose alliance or opposition was an object of importance to the princes of the country. It might have been expected that on the return of peace both parties would lay aside their armour, and return to the counting house. But as the eloquent historian of these transactions, who was at the time at Madras, observes, "The war had brought to Pondicherry and Fort St David, a number of troops greatly superior to any which either of the two nations had assembled in India, and as if it was impossible that a military force which feels itself capable of enterprises should refrain from attempting them, the two settlements, no longer authorised to fight with each other, took the resolution of employing their arms in the contests of the princes of the country, the English with great indiscretion, the French with the utmost ambition."

Expedition to

Devi-cotta, 1749

The English were the first to take the field. The little principality of Tanjore, seventy miles long and sixty in breadth, with the history of which the reader is already acquainted, was at this time governed by Pretap Sing, the fifth in succession from the Mahratta chieftain who had conquered it. His brother, Sahoojee, who had been deposed for his imbecility, applied to the governor of Madras to reseal him on the throne, engaging to defray all the expenses of the expedition and to cede the town and district of Devi cotta, at the mouth of the Coleroon. The English had no right to interfere in this foreign quarrel, but their troops were unemployed, and the opportunity was very tempting. This forms, perhaps, the only instance during a century of warfare of an expedition undertaken by them without any plea of necessity. The force which was sent to conquer Tanjore consisted of 430 Europeans and 1,000 sepoys, with eight field pieces and mortars, under the command of Major Stringer Lawrence, the first of that long train of heroes who have rendered the British name illustrious on the plains of Hindostan. The commencement of the siege was instantaneous. The typhoon which ushered in the monsoon, sunk some of the largest of the ships, and inflicted such destruction

on the army as to oblige the Major to retire to Porto Novo to refit. It would be tedious to follow the varied events of the siege, which was our first and most clumsy attempt to take an Indian fort, and which derives its chief interest from the circumstance that it afforded the first opportunity for developing the genius of Clive. The fort was captured after two unsuccessful attacks, but it had now become manifest to the Madras Presidency that the cause of our *protegee* was unpopular and hopeless. The raja of Tanjore, menaced by Chunda Sahib, offered to defray all the expenses incurred by the Company in war, to cede Devi-cotta with the district around it, and to grant a pension of 50,000 rupees a year to his disinherited brother. These terms were accepted, and the troops returned to Madras.

Dupleix's ambitious designs.

While the English army was thus wasting its strength on the walls of Devi-cotta, Dupleix was playing a higher game. He had seen a thousand European troops disperse an army of ten thousand native soldiers like a flock of sheep, and he had received the congratulations of the native princes on the success of his arms. He had at his disposal an army capable of any enterprise, and, in Bussy, a general fit to command it. He determined, therefore, to take advantage of the confusion of the times, and the prestige he had acquired, to set up a French empire in the Deccan. Chunda Sahib was considered by the natives of the Carnatic, the ablest soldier in the country, and the only man who could deliver them from the yoke of the hated Anwar ood deen, and Dupleix at once perceived how greatly his ambitious projects would be forwarded if Chunda Sahib were placed on the throne of the Carnatic by his instrumentality. He accordingly opened a correspondence with that prince, who had been a prisoner for eight years at Satara, through the medium of his wife who was residing at Pondicherry under the protection of the French government. After much negotiation Dupleix succeeded in obtaining the liberation of Chunda Sahib by the payment of seven lacs of rupees, and he appeared on the

confines of the Carnatic with 6,000 troops whom he had enlisted when the death of the old Nizam, at Hyderabad, gave a new turn to public affairs

Death of the  
Nizam, 1748

Towards the end of 1748 Nizam ool moolk, the soobadar of the Deccan, the great founder of the kingdom of Hyderabad, closed his long and eventful career at the age of a hundred, and four His eldest son, Ghazee ood deen was at the time high in office at Delhi His second son, Nazir Jung who was with his father at the period of his decease and in command of the army, immediately seized the public treasure and the supreme authority, giving out that his elder brother had resigned the office of soobadar to him But there was a grandson of the old Nizam whom he had cherished with great affection, and who now aspired to this honour He affirmed that it had been conferred on him by the emperor himself with the title of Anwar Jung and he assembled an army of 25 000 men with which he hovered on the west of Golconda, watching the opportunity of action Chunda Sahib, hearing of the position and designs of the young prince, immediately offered him the service of his sword He was received in the camp with open arms, and his troops were at once taken into the pay of Anwar Jung, who was persuaded to appoint him Nabob of the Carnatic, and to march, in the first instance, to the conquest of that province, on the ground that its resources would be invaluable in the struggle with Nazir Jung A communication was at the same time made to Duplex inviting him to join the confederacy, and offering him great advantages for the French Company The proposal, if it did not originate with Duplex, was most acceptable to him, and a contingent of 400 Europeans and 2,000 sepoys was immediately sent to join the confederates Their united force, swelled in its progress to 40,000 men, entered the Carnatic and began to levy contributions The Nabob, Anwar ood deen, advanced to repel the invasion with a force of only half that number, and a battle was fought in July, 1749, at Amboor, fifty miles from Arcot, which decided the fate of

the Carnatic. The army of the Nabob was completely routed chiefly through the valour of Ba-sr's troops, the Nabob himself was shot dead in the action, and his son Mahomed Ali, fled to Trichinopoly, where the family and the treasures of the deceased Nabob had been deposited.

The English and  
Mahomed Ali,  
13.

Moraffier Jung marched the next day to Arcot and assumed the state and dignity of soobadar of the Deccan, conferring the government of the

Carnatic on Chunda Sahib. From thence they proceeded together to Pondicherry, where Dupleix received them with all the oriental ceremonies due to the rank they had assumed and was rewarded by the grant of eighty-one villages. Mahomed Ali, on his arrival at Trichinopoly, came to the conclusion that it could not be successfully defended against the victorious army of Chunda Sahib, backed by his French allies, although it was one of the strongest and most important fortresses in the south. He sent, therefore to implore the assistance of the English governor of Madras, who was, however, without any instructions for such an emergency.



after two months, had been wasted in the siege the raja engaged to pay down seventy lacs of rupees to the allies, and to cede more than eighty villages to the French, around their settlement at Carical. With the view of gaining time, he doled out the money in dribbets, but before the first instalment had been counted down, Dupleix informed the allies that Nazir Jung was approaching the Carnatic with an overwhelming force, upon which they broke up their encampment in dismay, and retired to the vicinity of Pondicherry.

Defeat of  
Mozuffer Jung  
and Chunda  
Sahib 1749

The army with which Nazir Jung entered the Carnatic to drive out the two adventurers did not fall short of 300 000 men, one half of whom consisted of cavalry, and a tenth of mercenary Mahrattas, with 800 guns and 1,300 elephants. He summoned to his standard all the tributaries of Hyderabad, and, among others, the Patan nabobs of Cuddipah, Kurnool, and Srivatore. Their ancestors had held those districts under the crowns of Bejapore and of Golconda, and they themselves were at the head of the Patans, who were constantly streaming down from Afghanistan to seek employment and plunder in India. The encampment of Nazir Jung was established at Valdore, about fifteen miles from Pondicherry, and the Governor of Madras sent an English force of 600 Europeans to join it under Major Lawrence. Dupleix, on his part, augmented the French contingent with Mozuffer Jung and Chunda Sahib to 2,000 European bayonets. But on the eve of the day fixed for battle, thirteen French officers, who were dissatisfied with their share of the treasure obtained from the raja of Tanjore, basely deserted their colours and returned to Pondicherry. The soldiers were panic struck, and followed their example. Chunda Sahib fought his way back gallantly to the French settlement, but Mozuffer Jung surrendered himself to his uncle, who took an oath to protect him, and then placed him in captivity.

Dupleix's scheme. The ambitious schemes of Dupleix were inter-

in vements  
1749

rupted by this reverse, but he showed himself as great an adept in oriental intrigue as if he had been bred a Mahomedan courtier. He immediately opened a negotiation with Nazir Jung, and was allowed to send an envoy to his camp, who had thus an opportunity of ascertaining the precise position of affairs. Though the mission of his emissary was not successful, he discovered that the three Patan nabobs mentioned above were dissatisfied with the proceedings of the Nizam, and ready to revolt. Dupleix established a correspondence with them, and, with the view of securing their confidence and intimidating the Nizam, sent an expedition to Masubpatam, and captured the fort, attacked the camp of Mahomed Ali, and, after a prodigious slaughter, constrained him to fly with only one or two attendants, and then seized on Gmjee, the stronghold of the south, the siege of which had detained Zulfikar Khan nine years. These daring exploits at length roused Nazir Jung from the voluptuous sloth in which he was buried at Arcot, and induced him to send two of his officers to renew the negotiations with Dupleix. But Dupleix, seeing the game in his own hands, rose in his demands, and required the liberation of Mozuffer Jung and the restoration of his estates, together with the acknowledgment of Chunda Salub as Nabob of the Carnatic, and the cession of Masulipatam and its dependencies to the French.

Nazir Jung at-  
tacked and  
killed, 1749

Nazir Jung, indignant at these audacious proposals, instantly ordered his army to march against the French. Though it had been reduced in number by the dismissal of many detachments, fifteen days were occupied in marching a distance of only thirty miles. Scarcity and disease began to thin its ranks, and the Nabob, weary of a war in which he had wasted a twelvemonth to no purpose, conceded all the demands of Dupleix, and they were embodied in a treaty. But Dupleix had been for seven months in correspondence with the discontented nabobs, and on the

maturity of the scheme, had ordered his commandant at Ginjee to proceed against the camp of Názir Jung, as soon as he received a requisition from them. Their summons unfortunately reached him before the ratification of the treaty, in total ignorance of which, he marched on the 4th of December, 1749, towards the Nizam's camp, with 800 Europeans and 3,000 sepoys. After a long and fatiguing march of sixteen miles, he came in sight of it as it stretched over an area of eighteen miles, and immediately commenced the attack. His small force was repeatedly charged by different divisions of the enemy, but his field pieces shattered their ranks, and by mid day half their army was in flight. Názir Jung could not credit the report, that the French with whom he had just concluded a treaty were engaged in attacking his troops, but when he was assured of the fact, he rode up with indignant haste to the three nabobs, who were marching to join the French, and singling out the Nabob of Cuddapah, reproached him with his cowardice and treachery. The Nabob lodged two balls in the heart of his unfortunate master, and having caused his head to be struck off, hastened to present it to Mozuffer Jung.

Mozuffer Jung

becomes Nizam, confinement, and saluted Soobadar of the Deccan

1 50

"Never," remarks the great historian of this period, "since the days of Cortez and Pizarro, did so small a force decide the fate of so large a sovereignty." The new Nizam proceeded to Pondicherry, and was welcomed with a grand display of eastern pomp. The day following his arrival he was installed as Soobadar, and Dupleix, arrayed in the gorgeous robes of a *Mahomedan omra*, appeared as the chief actor in the pageant. Chaudr Salub was declared Nabob of the Carnatic, and Dupleix was nominated governor on the part of the Mogul, of all the country lying south of the Kistna. Thus had this daring politician, in the brief space of twenty months, outrun even his own large scheme of ambition. He had not only created a Nabob of the Carnatic, but even a

Viceroy of the Deccan, and had obtained the supreme control of a kingdom larger than France

But Mozuffer Jung was not to enjoy this dignity long After having made a profuse distribution of the treasures of Nazir Jung, amounting to two crores of rupees among his partisans, he left Pondicherry on his return to Hyderabad on the 4th of January, 1751, accompanied by a French force of 300 Europeans and 2 000 sepoys, under the command of Bussy He had not proceeded more than sixty leagues, when the three Patan nabobs who were dissatisfied with the rewards they had received on the occasion of his elevation, broke into open rebellion Bussy's force was immediately called forth, and his artillery swept down their battalions, the treacherous Nabob of Sivanore was hacked to pieces, and the revolt was quenched in the blood of those who had excited it But the irritated Nizam, rejecting the sound advice of Bussy, insisted on the pursuit of the fugitives, and was struck dead by the javelin of the nabob of Kurnool, who was in his turn slain in the conflict The whole camp was thrown into the greatest confusion by this unexpected event, but Bussy never lost his presence of mind He assembled the bewildered generals and ministers, and, such was the influence he had acquired, that he induced them to confer the vacant dignity on Salabut Jung the third son of the old Nizam who was then a prisoner in the camp Tranquility was immediately restored, and the army resumed its progress Leaving it now to pursue its march to the north, we turn to the movements of Chunda Sahib

Chunda Sahib proceeded from Pondicherry with 8 000 of his own troops and 800 French auxiliaries to Arcot, in February, 1751, to receive homage as Nabob of the Carnatic, and then advanced to the siege of Trichinopoly Mr Saunders now Governor of Madras, felt that a great error had been committed in permitting Dupleix to obtain such a footing in the south, and he resolved to counteract his schemes by a more decisive support of the

cause of Mahomed 'Ali. A large detachment was accordingly sent to the relief of the small English garrison cooped up in the fort of Trichinopoly, but the troops of our ally scarcely exceeded a tenth of those assembled under the banner of Chunda Salub. Captain Clive, who accompanied the reinforcement, returned to Madras and urged on the Governor the importance of creating a diversion, and suggested an expedition to Arcot, the capital of the Carnatic. Clive, the founder of the British empire in India, had gone out to

*Career of Clive.*

Madras in the civil service of the East India Company in 1744, and was present at the surrender of that town to Laboumtonais, two years after. Following the bent of his genius, he exchanged the pen for the sword, and obtained an ensign's commission. He distinguished himself in the operations before Devicotta, where he attracted the admiration of Major Lawrence. He was also at the abortive and disastrous siege of Pondicherry under admiral Boscawen. Mr Saunders adopted his advice, and confided the Arcot expedition to his charge, though he was only twenty six years of age at the time. The only force that could be spared from Madras consisted of 200 Europeans, and 300 sopoys and eight field pieces. Of the eight officers who accompanied it one-half were civilians attracted to the expedition by the example of Clive, and six of them had never been in action. But Clive had seen from the ramparts of Madras a mere handful of Europeans defeat and disperse ten thousand native soldiers, and he had confidence in his own powers. During the march of the troops they were overtaken by a violent storm of thunder, lightning, and rain, but they continued their progress with the utmost coolness, and this circumstance impressed the superstitious garrison with so exalted an idea of their prowess, that they were allowed to enter the fort without opposition. The expedition produced the desired effect, Chunda Salub was obliged to detach a large force to Arcot and the pressure on the English garrison at Trichinopoly was alleviated.

Siege of Arcot  
by Clive, 1751

The fort of Arcot was more than a mile in circumference, with a low and lightly built parapet, several of the towers were decayed and the ditch, where not fordable, was dry and choked up. From the day of its occupation, Clive had been incessantly employed in repairing the defences, but the place seemed little capable of standing a siege. Of his eight officers, one had been killed and two wounded in successive encounters with the enemy, and a fourth had returned to Madras. The troops fit for duty had been reduced by casualties and disease to 120 Europeans and 200 sepoys, and it was with this small body that Clive sustained, for seven weeks, the incessant assaults of 10,000 native troops and 150 Europeans. On the last day of the siege the enemy endeavoured to storm the fort, but, during a conflict which lasted more than eighteen hours, they were repulsed on every point, and the next morning were seen to break up their encampment and retire. "Thus ended this memorable siege," as Orme remarks, "maintained fifty days, under every disadvantage of situation and force by a handful of men in their first campaign, with a spirit worthy of the most veteran troops, and conducted by the young commander with indefatigable activity, unshaken confidence, and undaunted courage, and notwithstanding he had at this time neither read books or conversed with men capable of giving him much instruction in the military art, all the resources which he employed in the defence of Arcot were such as were dictated by the best masters in the art of war." His character was completely defined in a single expression of the great minister of England, William Pitt, when he styled him the "heaven born general."

Defeat of the  
French, 1752.

Chunda Sahib still continued to beleaguer Trichinopoly with a large force, and Mahomed Ali was induced, by his terror, to invite the aid of the regent of Mysore and Morari Rao the Mahratta chief of Gooty, as well as the general of the Tanjore troops. Clive, on his return from Arcot, proceeded to Trichinopoly, and was

employed in various enterprises of a minor character, which, however, served to mature his military talents. The campaign was brought to an early and successful issue by Major Lawrence, who, in June, 1752, compelled the French commander Law, to surrender at discretion, with all his troops, stores, and artillery. Chunda Sahib, deserted by his own officers, yielded himself up to the Tanjore general, who appeared to be the least inveterate of his enemies. The general took the most solemn oath to conduct him in safety to a French settlement, but immediately after caused him to be assassinated, at the instigation of Mahomed Ali, who, after feasting his eyes with the sight of his murdered rival, bound his head to the neck of a camel, and paraded it five times round the walls of the city.

The war with Chunda Sahib had no sooner terminated, than the English found themselves

involved in hostilities with the allies who had co-operated with them in the cause of Mahomed Ali, so utterly impossible did they find it to shake off their connection with country politics, when once entangled in them. The Mysore regent came forward and claimed possession of Trichinopoly and its dependencies, and the Nabob was constrained to confess that he had secretly contracted to transfer the city, and the territory south of it, to the Mysore prince, as the price of his alliance. It is easy to conceive the disgust of Major Lawrence on finding that the fortress which his own government had drained their treasury to secure for the Nabob, was now to be made over to a native chief who had rendered no assistance, and whose fidelity was exceedingly doubtful. He retired in disgust to Madras taking care, however, to leave Captain Dalton, with 200 Europeans and 1,500 sepoy, to guard the citadel against the artifices of the regent. Meanwhile Dupleix, having received large reinforcements from Europe, proclaimed the son of Chunda Sahib nabob of the Carnatic, and sent a powerful force to renew the siege of Trichinopoly. But Major Lawrence over-

Discontent of the  
the Regent,  
15-

Battle of Baboor  
Aug. 1752.

took the French at Bahoor, inflicted a signal defeat on them, and a second time captured their guns and ammunition.

The Mysoreans and Mahrattas join the French, l 5—

The Mysore regent, seeing it vain to expect the acquisition of Trichinopoly, or any portion of the sum of eighty lacs of rupees, which he demanded

in lieu of it, transferred his alliance, in conjunction with Morari Rao, to the French. The town was regularly besieged by the confederates, who experienced many vicissitudes during the two years the investment lasted. These various actions it is not necessary to detail, and it may be sufficient to state that the French were three times worsted by the superior strategy of Lawrence, and that, on one occasion, the English sustained a memorable reverse. At length Morari Rao, on the receipt of three lacs of rupees from Mahomed Ali, consented to withdraw his force, and not to appear again in the field against the English, the Nabob, or the raja of Mysore. Before his departure, however, he contrived to extort a further sum from the Mysore regent, under the threat of attacking him. He was the ablest and the boldest native general of his time, and his little army, composed of Mahrattas, Mahomedans, and Rajpoots, was the most compact and formidable body of native troops in the south. They had stood the assault of European troops, and, what was of more importance, the fire of field pieces, which were now, for the first time, introduced into Indian warfare, and they had unshaken confidence in each other, and in their chief.

The French and English had now been engaged in mutual hostilities for nearly five years, mutually exhausting their resources in the cause of native princes. The Court of Directors were anxious to put an end to this anomalous and wasting warfare, and in 1753 made an earnest appeal to the ministers of the crown for aid either to prosecute, or to terminate it. The ministry ordered a squadron and a military force to India, and then remonstrated with the French government on the proceedings of their functionaries

Termination of  
the war l 54



in the East. Anxious to avoid a war between the two countries, the French cabinet despatched M. Godcheu, one of the directors of their East India Company, to India, with orders to supersede Dupleix, to assume the control of their affairs, and bring these hostilities to an immediate close. He landed at Pondicherry, on the 2nd of August, 1751, and all the schemes of ambition in which Dupleix had been so long engaged were at once quenched. He immediately laid down his office, but his vanity was soothed by being allowed to retain the emblems of his "Moorish dignity—his flags, and ensigns, and instruments of music, and the dress of his nabobship, in which he went, in great pomp, to dine with M. Godcheu on the feast of St. Louis."

Treaty between the French and the English, 1754 The negotiators, M. Godcheu and Mr. Saunders, agreed upon a suspension of arms at their first meeting. A conditional treaty was soon after signed the salient points of which were, that both parties should, for ever, "renounce all Moorish government and dignity," and never interfere in the differences of the native princes, that the possessions held by both nations should eventually be of equal value, but that they should retain all their acquisitions till a final treaty was concluded in Europe. Mahomed Ali was, likewise, to be confirmed as Nabob of the Carnatic. The balance of advantage was on the side of the French. Independently of the Northern Circars, held by Bussy, they remained in possession of a territory yielding eighteen lacs of rupees a year, while that occupied by the English was not of more value than ten lacs, but the East India Company was rid of the restless ambition of Dupleix, which outweighed every other consideration. The treaty was, however, little respected by those who made it. The ink was scarcely dry before the Madras government sent an auxiliary force with the army of their Nabob, to subjugate the districts of Madura and Tinnevely, and the French despatched a body of troops to subdue Terriore. And as to any definitive treaty in Europe, every prospect of it was exting-

guished by the war, which soon after broke out between England and France

Dupleix embarked for Europe in September, 1754. He had expended a sum exceeding thirty lacs of rupees in the public service, partly from his private estate, and partly from funds raised on his own bond. Gode Leu refused to audit his accounts, and referred the adjustment of them to the Directors of the French East India Company in Paris, who, to their disgrace, basely disallowed the greater portion of the claim under the pretence that these expenses had been incurred without their sanction. Dupleix was consigned to neglect and poverty—the second instance of national ingratitude towards Indian servants. He merited a different return from his own nation, for, whatever may have been the defects of his character, the French never had an officer more desirous, or more capable, of extending their reputation and power. At a time when Europeans, without exception entertained a morbid dread of native arms, he boldly encountered them in the field, and demonstrated their weakness, and, if he had been adequately supported from France, he would probably have succeeded in the great object of his life—the establishment of a French empire in India.

Death of Sahoo,  
1764—Malhatta  
politics.

Before we follow the career of Bussy, in the north it is necessary to glance at the progress of Malhatta affairs. Sahoo, the grand son of Sevajee, who had been seated on the Malhatta throne for more than fifty years, and had always been imbecile, now exhibited signs of idiocy—dressing up a favourite dog in gold brocade and jewel and placing his own plumed turban on his head in open durbar. All substantial power had long since passed into the hands of the Peshwa: but the wife of Sahoo was his mortal foe, and at this crisis, endeavoured to weaken him by persuading her husband, now in his dotage, to ally himself with the raja of Kolapore. But Tara Bye, who had taken no share in Malhatta politics for more than twenty years, since the

death of her son, now came forward and conveyed information to Sahoo, that her daughter in law had been delivered of a posthumous child, whose life she had succeeded with great difficulty in preserving, and who was now the nearest heir to the throne. The Peshwa, whether he believed the story or not, determined to support it, and advanced to Satara with a powerful army. Every avenue to the couch of the dying monarch was strictly guarded by his wife, but the Peshwa found the means of access to him, and induced him to affix his seal to a most extraordinary document, by which all the authority in the state was transferred to the Peshwa, on condition that he should maintain the royal title and dignity of the house of Sevajee, in the person of Tara Bye's grandson. Sahoo died two days after the execution of this document, and the Peshwa dexterously constrained his widow to ascend the funeral pile by giving out that she had announced her intention to do so, and from such an announcement she could not recede without infamy.

Supremacy of  
the Peshwa,  
1750

Balajee Rao, the Peshwa, immediately proclaimed the adopted prince sovereign of the Mahrattas, under the title of Ram raja. The Mahratta feudatories who had been summoned to the Court, accompanied the Peshwa to Poona—thenceforward the capital of Mahratta power—to confirm and complete the provisions of Sahoo's testament. Rughojee Bhonslay received new sunnuds for levying *chout* in Bengal and Behar, the province of Malwa was divided between Holkar and Sindia, and the old cabinet of Ministers was confirmed in office. These appointments were made in the name of Ram raja, but they served to strengthen the authority of the Peshwa. The year 1750 may, therefore, be considered the period at which the power of the Mahratta state was definitively transferred to his family, and the descendant of Sevajee became a puppet at Satara. But Tara Bye, though seventy years of age, was mortified by this alienation of all power from the regal sceptre, and called to her aid the troops of the Guickwar,

now the substantive ruler of Guzerat. At the same time she urged her grandson to strike for his independence, but he had no spirit for such a task, and she reproached him bitterly with his degeneracy, and then placed him in confinement. The Peshwa, who was then on a distant expedition, hastened to Satara, and, by an act of treachery which has sullied his character, seized on the Guickwar, but left Tara Byc unmolested. He felt that by consigning the legitimate monarch to a prison she was in reality playing his game.

Progress of  
Bussy 1.52.

To return to the progress of Bussy. After the defeat of the three Patan nabobs and the elevation of Salabut Jung, he accompanied the army to Golconda, where he and his officers received the most liberal donations. In June the Nizam proceeded with great pomp to the city of Aurungabad, then considered second in magnitude and importance only to Delhi. But Ghazee ood deen, the elder brother of Salabut Jung, who held one of the highest posts at the court of Delhi, on hearing of the death of Nizam Jung, obtained a patent of appointment as Soobadar of the Deccan, and excited the Peshwa by the promise of large paygeers to come down and attack Salabut Jung. The Mahrattas employed all the arts of their national warfare against Bussy, to whom the Nizam had confided the management of the cam-

dispatched an envoy to Dupleix, offering him the most brilliant advantages if he would detach the corps of Bussy from the interests of his rival and brother. To conciliate Dupleix, he went so far as to send him a sheet of blank paper with the broad seal of the Mogul empire affixed to it, for him to fill up with his own terms. But Salabnt Jung cut short all his schemes by inducing his own mother to send him a poisoned dish, which she knew he would partake of, when he found that it had been prepared with her own hands.

Bussy obtains  
the Northern  
Sircars 1753

The ascendancy which Bussy had acquired at the court of Hyderabad raised him many enemies, and even the minister, who was under the greatest obligations to him, became his determined foe, and plotted his destruction. In January, 1753, Bussy was obliged to visit the coast to recruit his health, and the minister during his absence endeavoured to break up his force by withholding the payment of their allowances and subjecting them to a variety of insults. Bussy was obliged to return before his health was confirmed and marched with a body of 4500 men to Aurungahad where the court lay. The minister, distracted by the appearance of this force determined to seek a reconciliation, to which Bussy, who wished to avoid extremities, was not less inclined. But to avoid all future occasion of discord regarding the pay of his troops, which amounted to forty lacs of rupees a year, he obtained the cession of the four districts on the coast generally known as the Northern Sircars. By this bold stroke the French acquired an uninterrupted line of coast six hundred miles in extent, yielding a revenue of fifty lacs of rupees a year, which rendered them absolute masters of a greater dominion than had been in the possession of any European power in India not excepting even the Portuguese. The districts were admirably adapted by the bounty of Providence and the industry of the inhabitants for a large and lucrative commerce; they were protected on one side by a chain of mountains, and on the other by the sea, and they afforded every fa-

cility for the introduction of reinforcements and munitions of war into the Deccan

The Peshwa, having completed his arrangements in the territory ceded to him by Salabut Jung and terminated his differences with Tara Bye,

sent an army to levy contributions in the Carnatic, and the expedition was considered the most profitable he had ever undertaken. Where the villages and towns refused immediate compliance with the demands of the Mahrattas, the local officers were seized, and compelled by threats and sometimes by torture, to make a settlement. Where no ready money could be obtained, bills were exacted from the bankers and forcibly cashed in other parts of the country. When a garrison presumed to offer resistance it was at once put to the sword. On the cessation of the rains, Rogoonath Rao, his fighting brother—the Raghoba of British Indian history—was dispatched to plunder Guzerat. From thence he proceeded to the north with a body of Sindia's and Holkar's troops, and after ravaging the territories still belonging to Daula, exacted heavy payments from the Pajpoots and Jauts.

Attack on  
Mysore and Sa-  
vanore, 1755-56.

Bussy, on his return to Hyderabad at the beginning of 1755, found Salabut Jung about to proceed to Mysore, to extort tribute. The Mysoreans then before Trichinopoly were acting in alliance with the French, but Bussy, as a feudatory, was obliged to "attend the stirrup" of his suzerain, though much against his will. The imbecile raja at Serangapatam directed his brother, the Regent, to hurry back with his troops from the Carnatic, and he was obliged to return without receiving the smallest compensation for the heavy expense incurred in the support of 20,000 troops for three years in that luckless expedition. So completely had the treasury been drained by this continued requirement that when the demand of the Nizam had been compromised, through the mediation of Bussy, for fifty six lacs of rupees, it became necessary to despoil not only the members of the court, female as well as

male, of their jewels and plate, but also the temples of the idols. The next year Salabut Jung marched against the nabob of Savanore, who had refused to acknowledge his authority. Morari Rao had equally resisted the authority of the Peshwa, and the Peshwa and the Nizam marched against their refractory vassals with a combined army of 100,000 men. It was in the presence of this force, the flower of the Deccan soldiery, that Bussy opened fire on the fort of Savanore from his splendid artillery, in such style as to astound the allied princes, and constrain the enemy to send immediate proposals for a surrender, and an accommodation was soon after effected through his good offices.

Intrigues  
against Bussy  
1756

The superiority which Bussy had exhibited in this expedition served only to inflame the animosity of the Nizam's minister, and increase his anxiety to rid the Deccan of this foreign influence. It was even determined, if necessary, to assassinate him. As soon, therefore, as peace was concluded with Savanore, Bussy was ordered to quit the territories of the Nizam, who was said to have no farther occasion for his services. He received the message without any feeling of resentment, and immediately began his march back to Masulpatam but at the same time desired the government of Pondicherry to dispatch every soldier who could be spared to that port without any delay. On the departure of Bussy the minister of the Nizam applied to Madras for a body of English troops to aid in completing the expulsion of the French from the state. The two nations were then at peace, and a convention had been entered into which bound the two Companies to avoid all interference in the quarrels of the native powers. But the bait was too tempting to be resisted, and the government of Madras was on the point of sending a large force to demolish the power of Bussy in the Deccan, when intelligence arrived of the sack of Calcutta and another direction was given to the expedition. Bussy, while yet two hundred miles from the coast found his ammunition running short and his military chest

exhausted, and turned aside to Hyderabad, where his influence would more readily procure supplies of every kind. On the 14th of June, 1756, he took up a position at Charmaul, in the neighbourhood of the city Salabut Jung, whom he had raised from a prison to the throne, summoned every tributary and dependent in the kingdom to his standard and brought its whole strength down to crush his benefactor. Bussy defended himself with his usual skill and gallantry for nearly two months, but his position was daily becoming more critical, when Law, marching up from the coast with reinforcements through a wild and mountainous track, and bringing a corps of 25,000 men sent to oppose him, succeeded in forming a junction with his chief at Charmaul. Salabut Jung, in a fever of alarm, sent proposals of peace, which Bussy was not unwilling to accept, and his authority became more firmly established in the Deccan than ever.

Bussy at the  
summit of suc-  
cess, 13—58

Towards the close of the year, Bussy proceeded to the districts assigned to him on the coast, to restore his authority, which had been impaired during the recent conflict, and he devoted the next year to the regulation of the government, in which he exhibited not less talent than he had shown in the field. Early in the year, he received a pressing request from the young Nabob of Moorshehabad, to march up and assist him in expelling Clive from Bengal, but, on hearing of the capture of Chandernagore and the imbecility of the Nabob, he resolved not to move out of his province. But, as war had now been declared between France and England, he proceeded to capture Vizagapatnam and the other English factories on the coast, but he treated the officers with the utmost liberality. During his absence from the court of Salabut Jung, that helpless prince was threatened with destruction by the machinations of his unprincipled minister, who had taken possession of the fortress of Dowlatabad and of his own ambitious brothers, one of whom, Nizam Ali, had obtained possession of the royal seal and usurped the authority of the state. The Marhattas did



not, of course, fail to throw themselves into the arena, when they saw the prospect of booty. The crown was falling from the head of Salabat Jung, and the country was on the eve of a convulsion, when Bussy started with his army from Rajmundry, and, traversing a country never seen by Europeans, reached Aurungabad, a distance of 400 miles, in twenty one days. There he found four armies assembled by the different parties to take a share in the struggle for power and plunder. His sudden appearance, with a force which all were obliged to respect, combined with the natural ascendancy of his character, at once extinguished all intrigues. The authority of Salabat Jung was restored, the venomous minister was killed in a tumult provoked by his own devices, Nizam Ali was constrained to fly to Boorhanpore, and Bussy, by a *coup d'état* secured the citadel of Dowlatabad, the strongest in the Deccan.

Extinction of  
Bussy's power  
1758

Bussy, who had for seven years exercised the chief influence on the destinies of the Deccan, had now reached the summit of his grandeur. The provinces on the coast, which were governed with great wisdom and moderation, furnished abundant resources for the support of his troops, and he had secured an *impregnable* stronghold in the heart of the country. He had placed the interests of his nation on a foundation not to be shaken by ordinary contingencies. With a genius which was in every respect fully equal to that of Clive, he had succeeded in establishing the authority of France in the southern division of India to the same extent as the authority of England had been established in the north, and it appeared, at the time by no means improbable, that the empire of India would be divided between the two nations. But the power of the one was destined to permanence and expansion, the prospects of the other were swept away by the folly of one man. At the commencement of the war in 1756, Lally was sent out as Governor General of the French possessions in India, and immediately on his arrival, partly from caprice and partly

from envy, ordered Bussy to repair to Pondicherry with all the troops not absolutely required for the protection of the maritime provinces. Bussy, who considered obedience the first duty of a soldier, withdrew his garrison from Dowluta bad, and, to the unutterable surprise of the native princes, who trembled at the sound of his name, retired with all his troops from the Decern, just at the time when he had become arbiter of its fate. He took leave of Salabut Jung on the 18th of June, 1758, and, with his departure, the sun of French prosperity in India sunk, never to rise again.

**War with France** The command of the armament which the French government fitted out in 1756, to extinguish the British commerce in India, was committed to Count Lally. He was descended from one of those Irish Roman Catholic families who had emigrated to France after the expulsion of James the Second. He inherited that implacable hatred of England which the exiles carried with them, and was, therefore, fitted, as much by his own animosities, as by his military talents, for the mission on which he was sent. He had been more than forty years in military service, and had gained some distinction in the field, but with all his bravery, he was headstrong, rash, and arrogant. He proceeded to India with a powerful fleet and army, and, after an indecisive action with the English at sea, landed at Pondicherry in April, 1758. Before twenty four hours had elapsed he was on his march to the English settlement of Fort St David. It was garrisoned by 870 Europeans and 1,600 sepoys, and, but for the extraordinary incapacity of the commander, might have made an honourable defence, but it was scandalously surrendered after a siege of only a month. The fortifications were immediately razed by Lally.

**Lally attacks** The government of Madras naturally concluded that Fort St George would be the next object of the victorious general, and they called in the garrisons from the subordinate stations, and prepared for a vigorous defence. Fortunately for them, Lally was as resolutely

thwarted by the civil authorities at Pondicherry, as La Bourdonnais had been in 1746, and his movements were, at the same time, crippled for want of resources. To obtain a supply of money he looked, in the first instance, to Tanjore. Seven years before this time, the raja, pressed by the demands of Mozuffer Jung and Chanda Sahib, had given them a bond for fifty six lacs of rupees, which, as being of little value, they had made over to their French allies. This document Lally determined now to turn to account, and proceeded with his army to enforce payment. The town was besieged for more than a fortnight, a practical breach had been made in the walls, when an English fleet suddenly appeared on the coast, off the factory of Carical, on which the French army depended for its supplies. Lally, who had only twenty cartridges left for each soldier, and but two days' provisions in the camp, was obliged to raise the siege and return to Pondicherry, poorer than he had left it. To his infinite chagrin, the French admiral resisted his pressing importunities and sailed away, with the whole fleet, to the Mauritius.

Returning from Tanjore, Lally marched in the first instance to Arcot, which the viceroy governor surrendered without resistance. Bussy who had now arrived in the French camp from Hyderabad, implored Lally to employ the great resources at his command in strengthening the position which the French nation had acquired in the Nizam's dominions. But Lally's head was filled with the magnificent project of driving the English from Madras, and then from Calcutta, and, finally, from the coasts of India. The wise counsel of Bussy was treated with contempt, and Lally scarcely condescended to read his letters. Contrary to the remonstrances of the Council at Pondicherry, he now determined to undertake the siege of Madras. The English governor had taken advantage of the respite gained while Lally was otherwise employed, to strengthen the defences and to lay in a full supply of provisions. The enemy brought up a force of 2,700 Europeans and 4,000

Unsuccessful  
siege of Madras,  
1755-56

sepoys, with 400 European cavalry, the first ever seen in India. The garrison consisted of 1,750 Europeans and 2,200 sepoys, but they were commanded by the veteran Lawrence, supported by thirteen officers who had been trained under his own eye, in the wars on this coast. Lally sat down before the fort on the 12th of December, 1758, and the siege was prosecuted for two months with the greatest vigour. There was no lack of military skill or courage on either side. But on the 16th of February, when a breach had been made which the French were about to storm, an English fleet appeared in the roads. The French army was seized with a sudden panic, the trenches were abandoned without orders, and Lally was obliged to retreat with precipitation, leaving fifty pieces of cannon behind him.

Coote baffles  
Lally 159

In the course of the year there was an indecisive action at sea between the English and French fleets, and a variety of movements and counter movements by land without any definite result. Towards the close of the year the French troops, who were twelve months in arrears out of provisions, and in rags unable any longer to bear their privations, broke into open mutiny. Lally succeeded, at length, in quelling the revolt, but was, at the same time, constrained to take the fatal step of dividing his force, and sending a large portion of it to the south in search of money and food. This movement gave a great advantage to the English, but they derived still greater service from the arrival of Colonel Coote, a general second only to Clive, to take the command of the army. He entered upon the campaign with his accustomed energy, and recaptured Wandewash, which the French had occupied in the previous year. In January, 1760, Lally moved up to retrieve this loss, and Coote compelled him to fight, to great disadvantage, in the neighbourhood of the town, which has given its name to the battle. Independently of sepoys, the French brought 2,250 and the English 1,900 Europeans into the field on this occasion. Lally sustained a complete and disastrous defeat, and Bussy

was taken prisoner; but, in consideration of his high character and his generous conduct to the English in the Northern Sircars, was immediately allowed to return to Pondicherry. Victory appeared now to desert the French standard. During the year 1760, Coote succeeded in depriving Lally of all the places he had taken, and Ginjee and Pondicherry were at length the only possessions remaining to the French. Lally's troops were not only without provisions, stores, or equipments, but without hope of obtaining any. The supplies from Europe had ceased. The settlements of the French, in Africa, in the West Indies, and in Canada, were attacked with such vigour as to leave them no leisure to attend to their affairs in the east. The extinction of the hope they had cherished of establishing an empire in India may thus be traced, indirectly, to those energetic measures by which William Pitt, the great minister of England, defeated their attempts to establish an empire in America.

Capture of  
Pondicherry,  
1760.

Coote now prepared for the siege of Pondicherry, when an event occurred which had well nigh marred the prospects of the campaign. The fleet from England brought a new commission to Col. Monson, the second in command, which virtually superseded Coote. Instructions were, it is true, given that the commission should not be acted on during the continuance of the war, but Coote at once yielded the command of the expedition to the man whom the authorities at home had thought fit to put over his head, and retired to Madras. The gallant Lawrence had, in like manner, been superseded on a previous occasion, and this is, unfortunately, not the only instance we shall have to notice in the course of this narrative in which Government has deposed a general from his command in the full tide of victory. In the present case there was at least this excuse for the conduct of the people at home, that they were at the time ignorant of the great merit and brilliant success of Coote. Monson was baffled and wounded in his first independent enterprise, and requested Coote to resume the command of

operations, which he did not hesitate to do. Pondicherry was now subject to a close blockade. The brave garrison held out till, even at the scanty rations to which they had been reduced, provisions were left only for two days. Lally, worn out with fatigue, ill health, and vexation, capitulated on the 14th of January. As the victors marched into the town, their feelings were strongly affected by the skeleton figures to which the noblest forms in the two French regiments had been reduced by long and painful privation. Pondicherry was levelled with the ground. The instructions sent to Lally by his own government to annihilate the English settlements which he might capture had fallen into the hands of the Court of Directors, and they issued orders to retirate, and in the course of a few months not a roof was left of this once fair and flourishing colony.

*Fate of Lally* Thus ended a year between the English and French for the exclusive possession of commerce and power in India, which, with the exception of less than a twelvemonth, had lasted for fifteen years, and it terminated by leaving the French without an ensign in the country. Their settlements were restored at the Peace of Paris, two years subsequently, but they have never again been able to raise their heads in India. Lally returned to Paris, and was thrown into the Bastille. The French ministry were happy to be able to turn the popular indignation created by the loss of India, from themselves on the unfortunate commander. A charge of high treason was brought against him which deprived him of the benefit of counsel, and he was condemned to death by the Parliament of Paris, drawn through the streets on a dung cart, and executed the same day. "a murder committed by the sword of justice." Thus had the French government, in the course of fifteen years, destroyed three of their most eminent citizens, who had laboured with unexampled zeal and the highest patriotism to promote the national interests, and the expulsion of the French Company from the shores of India ceases to raise any emotion of regret.

when it is viewed as the just retribution of their iniquitous proceedings.

## CHAPTER X.

FROM THE CAPTURE OF CALCUTTA TO THE BATTLE OF PANNIPT  
1756—1761.

DURING these transactions on the coast, a revolution was in progress in Bengal, which resulted in transferring the empire of India to a European power. But before entering on the narrative of these events, it is necessary to glance at the progress of affairs at Delhi, though they had long ceased to exercise any influence on the destinies of Hindostan.

Ahmed Khan  
Abdallee 1761 In the year 1717, a new and formidable enemy, from the region beyond the Indus, appeared on the scene, in the person of Ahmed Khan, the chief of the Abdallee tribe of Afghans, and of the venerated family of the Sudoezies, whose persons were held inviolate. He was rescued from the Ghiljes, when Nadir Shah appeared before Candahar, and at the early age of twenty three, attracted the notice of that conqueror. He was present with him at the sack of Delhi the horrors of which he was one day destined to renew. In June, 1717, the atrocities of Nadir Shah, which are without a parallel on the page of history, constrained his subjects to rid the world of him. Ahmed Khan immediately after rose to distinction, and extended his influence over the tribes around him, and so great was his success, that he was crowned at Candahar before the close of the year. From some motive of superstition, he was led to change the name of his tribe to that of Dooranee, but he will continue to be designated in this work, by his original title of Abdallee.

His coronation was scarcely completed before he turned his attention to India, as the region in which his soldiers would most amply find both employment and plunder. Having crossed the Indus with a force estimated at 15,000 men he overran the Punjab, and pushed on to Sirhind. An army was despatched against him from Delhi without delay, under Ahmed Shah the eldest son of the emperor, who successfully resisted all the assaults of the Abdalees for ten days, and on the eleventh, completely discomfited them and constrained them to retreat towards their own country. The battle of Sirhind was the last expiring effort of the dynasty of the Moguls, and the last event in the life of Mahomed Shah, who died a month after, in April, 1748, after an inglorious reign of twenty eight years.

Ahmed Shah,  
Emperor 143.  
The Rohillas.

His son, Ahmed Shah, was in pursuit of the Abdalees when he heard of the event, and returned to Delhi to ascend the throne. Sufder Jung the viceroy of Oude, was appointed vizier, and devoted his first attention to the subjugation of the Rohillas, who had been expelled from the provinces in which they had given their name, but had taken advantage of the invasion of the Abdalees, to re-establish themselves in it. He marched against them with a numerous but ill-disciplined army, and was defeated by a far inferior force. The Rohillas pursued him into his own provinces, and though beaten off from Lucknow, penetrated to Allahabad, and set the Emperor and the vizier alike at defiance. In this emergency the vizier called up the Mahratta chieftains, Mulhar Rao Holkar and Jyapa Sindia as well as the Jant chief, Sooraj mull, and with their aid completely defeated the Rohilla, and obliged them to seek refuge in the hills. The Mahrattas were allowed to repay themselves by the unrestricted plunder of the province, which did not recover from the effect of the ravages for many years. Before his retirement, Holkar, true to his Mahratta instincts, exacted a bond of fifty lacs of rupees from the despoiled Rohillas.



Second invasion  
of Ahmed Shah,  
151

The Abdallee availed himself of these commotions to invade India a second time, and having overrun Lahore and Mooltan, sent an envoy to Delhi to demand the cession of those provinces. The vizier was absent in pursuit of the Rohillas, the emperor was under the influence of a favourite eunuch, and the whole country was under the dominion of terror. The provinces were formally surrendered to the invader. The vizier arrived at the capital too late to prevent this dastardly submission, but he manifested his disapproval of it, by inviting the favourite to an entertainment, and causing him to be assassinated. The incensed emperor soon found a fit instrument to avenge the insult, in the person of a youth destined to play an important part in the closing scenes of the Mogul empire. This was the grandson of the first Nizam, and the son of Ghazee ood deen, who was poisoned by his stepmother. The youth, whose original name was Shaha boo deen, but who is more generally known by his title of Ghazee ood deen, was courageous and resolute, but at the same time, one of the most accomplished villains of the age. He had been raised to the post of commander of the forces through the favour of the vizier, but did not hesitate to turn against him at the bidding of the emperor. A civil war was carried on between the parties for six months in the city of Delhi the streets of which were deluged with blood. Ghazee ood deen at length called Holkar's mercenaries to his aid, and the vizier finding himself no longer equal to the contest, consented to an accommodation, and retired to his own government of Oude. That province may be considered as finally alienated from the crown of Delhi in the present year, 1753. But the emperor was unable long to support the insolence of his overbearing minister, and marched out of the capital to oppose him but was defeated and captured by Holkar. The infamous Ghazee ood deen repared forthwith to the Mahratta camp, deposed the unfortunate captive, and put out his eyes, proclaiming one of the princes of the blood emperor, under the title of Alumgeer

Independence of  
Oude, 1753.

Ghazee-ood-deen  
deposes and  
blinds the em-  
peror 1154

Third Abdalce  
Invasion, 1758.

During these events, the vizier, Sadder Jung, died, and Ghazee ood deen invested himself with the office. His insufferable tyranny soon after drove his soldiers to revolt, and he was dragged by them through the streets, without his turban or slippers. He was eventually rescued from their hands by his own officers and glutted his revenge by slaughtering the whole body of the insurgents. In an evil hour his ambition led him to invade the Panjab, and to expel the officers whom Ahmed Shah had left to govern it. That prince immediately crossed the Indus and advanced to avenge the insult. Ghazee ood deen, unable to cope with such an adversary, repaired to his camp, and made the most humiliating submission. But though he obtained forgiveness, the Abdalce was resolved to obtain a pecuniary compensation on this his third irruption. He accordingly marched on to Delhi and gave it up to plunder for many days. All the atrocities of Nadir Shah's invasion were repeated, and the wretched inhabitants were subjected a second time, in less than ten years, to the outrages of a brutal soldiery. Ghazee ood deen was sent to plunder the province of Oude and Ahmed Shah himself undertook to pillage the territories of the Jants. In this expedition he inflicted an indelible stain on his character, by the indiscriminate slaughter of thousands of unoffending devotees who were assembled during a religious festival at the shrines of Muttra. Agra was saved from destruction only by a great mortality which broke out in the Abdalce army, and constrained Ahmed Shah to hasten his retreat across the Indus. The wretched emperor entreated that he might not be abandoned to the tender mercies of his ruthless vizier. Ghazee ood deen, and Nujeeb ood dowlah an able and energetic Rohilla chief was installed as commander in chief.

The rates on  
the Malabar  
coast.

The attention of the reader is now transferred to the Malabar coast, which had for centuries been denominated and not without reason the pirate coast of India. The western shore of the Peninsula is as thickly studded with harbours as the eastern coast, from the

mouths of the Hooghly to Ceylon, is destitute of them. For fifty years the piratical princes on the coast had been increasing in power and audacity. Among the most formidable was Comajee Angna, who had raised himself from the condition of a common sailor to the command of the Mahratta fleet, and then declared his independence and set up a terrific piratical power, boasting that he was as great a freebooter at sea as the Peshwa was by land. He established fortifications in every creek, bay, and harbour, for a hundred and twenty miles on the Concan coast, but his most important arsenal was in the noble port of Ghernah, about a hundred and seventy miles south of Bombay. In 1752, an expedition consisting of three British ships of the line and a Portuguese squadron attacked Colaba, another of his ports, but without success. In 1764, his corsairs overpowered three Dutch vessels, respectively of 40, 36, and 18 guns, the two largest of which were burnt, and the third captured. The following year the Peshwa and the Bombay government sent a joint expedition against Angna, and Commodore James attacked and carried the strong fortress of Soverndroog, without the loss of a single man. The fort was made over to the Mahrattas, though their pigmy fleet of grabs had never come within gunshot of the place.

Clive arrives at  
Bombay 1765

The Court of Directors viewed the progress of Bussy in the Deccan with great alarm, and resolved to form an alliance with the Peshwa with the view of arresting it, and to send a powerful force to Bombay to co-operate in this design. Clive, on his return to England from Madras had been received with great distinction by the Company and by the Ministers, and to him the Court of Directors committed the command of the troops destined to act against Bussy. On his arrival at Bombay, however, in October, 1765, he found the government of the Presidency firmly and conscientiously opposed to the enterprize. They considered themselves precluded from entering upon it by the Convention made in the preceding year between M. Godcheu

and Mr Saunders, of which their masters in England were ignorant when this design was formed. Admiral Watson happening to arrive with the fleet from Madras about the same time, it was resolved to take advantage of the presence of this large armament to root out the piratical power on that coast, which it was costing the Company five lacs of rupees a year to oppose. An arrangement was accordingly made with the Peshwa for a joint expedition against Gheriah. The Mahrattas marched down by land, and Colonel Clive and Admiral Watson proceeded by sea, with 14 vessels and 800 Europeans and 1,000 sepoys. The fire from the ships set the pirate fleet in a blaze within an hour. The next morning Clive attacked the fort by land, while the Admiral kept up so vigorous a cannonade from the sea that the defenders were obliged to capitulate in half an hour. In the arsenal were found 200 pieces of cannon, together with large quantities of ammunition and two large vessels on the stocks, as well as twelve lacs of rupees. The money was immediately distributed among the captors, without any reservation for the Mahrattas, or the Company, and the port and arsenal were, eventually, made over to the Peshwa. Admiral Watson and Colonel Clive soon after sailed for Madras, and, on the 20th of June, the latter took charge of the government of St. David, to which he had been appointed in England.

Seraja Dowlah  
viceroy of  
Bengal, 1756.

The brave old Tartar viceroy of Bengal, Ali verdy, expired at Moorshedabad at the age of eighty, on the 9th of April, 1756, bequeathing the government to Seraja Dowlah, a grandson on whom he had long doted. The youth, though only twenty years of age, was already cruel and profligate beyond the usual run of purple horn princes in India. The little understanding with which nature had endowed him was obscured by intemperance, he was the slave of parasites and buffoons, he had carried pollution into the families of the nobility, and had become the object of general abhorrence before he ascended the throne. His young cousin, Sokut Jung, with a character not less

abandoned than his own had recently succeeded to the government of the district of Purnea, and sent large sums to the court of Delhi to obtain his own nomination to the viceroyalty of the three provinces. Seraja Dowlah resolved to lose no time in extirpating him and marched with a large force to Purneah, but on reaching Rajmahal he received a letter from Mr Drake, the governor of Calcutta which gave another direction to his purpose.

Raja raj bullah, one of the Hindoo officers whom it was the policy of Aliverdy to place in public employments had amassed great wealth in the service, and shortly before the death of the old viceroy had been nominated governor of Dacca. His predecessor in that office had been assassinated and plundered by order of Seraja dowlah, and he was anxious to place his family and treasures beyond the reach of the tyrant, he, therefore obtained a letter of recommendation from Mr Watts, the Company's chief at Cossimbazar—the factory adjoining Moorshedabad—to the governor of Calcutta, and his son, Kissen dass, embarked at Dacca with a large retinue, under the pretence of going on a pilgrimage to Jugunnuth, and landed at Calcutta, where he received a cordial welcome. Seraja Dowlah, a day or two after the death of his grandfather, for which he had been waiting, despatched a letter to Mr Drake, the governor, demanding the immediate surrender of Kissen dass and his wealth. The messenger, though the brother of the raja of Midnapore the head of the spy department came in a small boat, and was expelled from the settlement as an impostor. A second communication was soon after sent to Mr Drake, ordering him peremptorily to demolish all the fortifications which the Nabob understood he had been erecting. The governor replied that the Nabob had been misinformed that no new defences had been attempted and that nothing in fact had been done but to repair the ramparts facing the river, in the prospect of another war with France. The Nabob was not in a humour to brook the slightest resistance of his will, his

Disputes with  
the governor of  
Calcutta, 1756

indignation was kindled to a degree which astonished even those who had been accustomed to the violence of his passions, and he ordered the army to march down instantly to Calcutta

Calcutta was ill prepared for such an assault. State of Fort William, 1 36. During fifty years of peace, the fortifications had been neglected, and warehouses built up to the ramparts. The defenceless state of the fort at this juncture was owing to the neglect of the Council, not to the inattention of the Court of Directors. After the capture of Madras by Labourdonnais in 1747, they were naturally anxious to protect their settlement in Bengal from a similar fate, and sent orders to strengthen the defences, however the viceroy might oppose them. Year after year were these injunctions repeated, and on one occasion no fewer than 200 recruits were sent out, and the artillery establishment augmented to 114 gunners and four officers. Colonel Scott arrived at Calcutta in 1754 as commandant, with the most stringent orders to complete the fortifications, and, if necessary, to conciliate the Nabob by an offering of a lac of rupees. At the same time the Court directed that none but Europeans should be received into their military service, but Colonel Scott represented that there was "a set of men called Rasepoots, natives, on the banks of the Ganges near Patna, geatoos of the fighting caste, and he was of opinion that when disciplined they would make excellent soldiers." The Court thereupon permitted the garrison to be recruited with Rajpoots, and the nucleus was thus formed of that army of which a hundred thousand endeavoured a century afterwards to subvert the British Empire. In 1755 the Court stated in their despatch that the death of the Nabob might be duly expected, that it would be attended with great confusion and trouble, that they trusted their officers had put Calcutta in a state of defence, and that they were to be on their guard to protect the possessions, effects, and privileges of the Company. But these warnings were lost on the authorities in Calcutta, who were heedful only of their own pelf, and whose infatua-

tion up to the latest moment, was exceeded only by their cowardice when the danger came. Colonel Scott died in 1755, and all the works in progress for the defence of the settlement were immediately suspended, the militia was not embodied till it was too late, the gunpowder, made by a fraudulent contractor, whom no one looked after, was deficient both in quantity and quality, and there were only 174 men in garrison, not ten of whom had ever seen a shot fired.

8 age of Cal  
cutta, June  
1 36.

The army of the Nabob, 50,000 strong, approached the town on the 17th June. Under every disadvantage, Clive would have made as noble a defence of Calcutta as he had made of Arcot, but the governor was Drake, and the commandant, Minchin. Instead of clearing the space round the fort of houses and encumbrances, batteries were injudiciously planted at a great distance from it, which the enemy captured on the first day, and were thus enabled to bring a galling fire to bear directly on the fort itself. At two in the morning of the 19th a council of war was held, when it was resolved to send the women and children on board the vessels lying off the town. But as soon as the water gate was open there was a general rush to the boats, many of which were capsized and the rest pushed off without order or discipline. After the fugitives had reached the ships, a shower of "fire arrows, by no means dangerous, was discharged on them, and the captains immediately weighed anchor, and dropped down two miles out of their reach. At ten in the morning only two boats remained at the wharf, into one of which, the governor, Mr Drake, quietly slipped, without leaving any instructions for the conduct of the garrison. The military commander, Minchin, followed his example, and they rowed down to the ships in all haste.

surrender of  
Calcutta.

As soon as this base desertion was known, nothing was heard on all sides but imprecations. When calmness had been in some measure restored, Mr Holwell was by common consent, placed in command and it was resolved to defend the fort to the last extremity. It held out

for forty eight hours, during which signals of distress were made, day and night, to the vessels anchored below the town. They might have come up with perfect safety, and rescued the gallant garrison with ease, but to crown this scene of infamy, not a vessel was moved to its assistance. On the 21st, the enemy renewed the assault with increased vigour, and more than half the remaining force was killed or wounded. The European soldiers broke into the liquor stores and became unfit for duty. A flag of truce was deceitfully sent by the Nabob, and Mr Holwell, seeing the utter helplessness of the garrison, agreed to a parley, during which the enemy treacherously rushed into the fort, and the officers were obliged to surrender their swords. The Nabob entered the fort about five in the afternoon, and ordered Kissen das, the cause of these calamities, to be brought before him, but received and dismissed him with courtesy. Mr Holwell was then ushered into his presence, and he expressed his resentment that the sum in the treasury was found not to exceed five lacs of rupees, but gave him every assurance of protection, and retired about dusk to his encampment.

The Black Hole,  
1756 The European prisoners were collected together under an arched verandah, while the native officers went in search of some building in which they might be lodged for the night. They returned about eight in the evening and reported that none could be found. The principal officer then desired the prisoners to move into one of the chambers behind the verandah, which had been used as the prison of the garrison. Orme calls it a dungeon, but the room immediately adjoining it was used as the settlement church for twenty eight years after the recovery of the town. It was not twenty feet square, and however suited for the confinement of a few turbulent soldiers, was death to the hundred and forty six persons, now thrust into it at the sword's point, in one of the hottest nights of the most sultry season of the year. The wretched prisoners soon became frantic with suffocating heat and insufferable thirst. The



struggle to reach the window and catch a breath of air proved fatal to many. At length they began to sink one by one into the arms of death, and the few who survived that awful night owed their lives to the more free ventilation obtained by standing on the bodies of their deceased companions. When the door was opened in the morning, only twenty three came out alive—the most ghastly forms ever seen. This is the tragedy of the Black Hole, which has rendered the name of Seraja Dowlah the type of infamy among all the nations of Christendom. Yet so little did it appear to be out of the ordinary course of events in the East, that it was scarcely marked by the native community, and was not considered of sufficient importance to demand even a passing notice from the Mahomedan historian of the time. The next morning the Nabob came down to the fort, and inquired whether the English chief still lived, and when Mr Holwell was borne into his presence, he manifested no compassion for his sufferings, nor the least remorse for the fate of the other prisoners, but reproached him anew with the concealment of the public treasure, and ordered him to be placed in confinement. The Nabob returned to Moorshedabad, after having extorted large sums from the French and the Dutch, and confiscated all the property of the English throughout the country, and thus was the East India Company expelled a second time from Bengal, as completely as they had been seventy years before, in the days of Aurungzebe.

Expedition to  
recover Cal  
cutta, 1756.

Information of this catastrophe was seven weeks in reaching Madras, where the military force consisted of 2,000 Europeans and 10 000 sepoys.

But, while the national honour required immediate vindication in Bengal, there was a strong party in the council desirous of employing the resources of the Presidency in assisting Salabut Jung to expel Bussy from the Deccan, although the Convention which they themselves had entered into with M. Goddieu was still fresh and binding. Much time was wasted in discussing whether the expedition should be sent

to Hyderabad or Calcutta. When the council at length came to the resolution to retrieve the affairs of the Company in Bengal in the first instance, further time was lost in disembarking the royal artillery and stores which Col Adlecron would not allow to proceed when he found that the command of the expedition was not to be given to him. Happily it was entrusted to the genius of Clive who was instructed, after the recapture of Calcutta, to march up to Moorsbedabad if the Nabob continued refractory, and to attack Chandernagore, if the declaration of war with France, then hourly expected, should arrive before the time fixed for the return of the troops. Admiral Watson and Col Clive sailed from Madras on the 10th of October with five ships of war, and five of the Company's vessels, on which 900 Europeans and 1,500 sepoy's were embarked.

On the 10th of December the expedition reached Recapture of Calcutta, 157 Fulta, about forty miles below Calcutta, where Mr Drake and the other fugitives were lying in the vessels on which they had taken refuge. A Mogul fortification on the river at Budge budge was soon after attacked. Manickchand the Nabob's Hindoo general who had been left in charge of Calcutta, had arrived there two days before with a large reinforcement of horse and foot. but a shot happening to pass too near his turban he gave the signal of retreat, and the whole body of his troops marched back in disorder to Calcutta. Not considering himself safe even there, he left 500 men to defend the fort, and fled with the remainder to Moorhedabad. Colonel Clive entered the dismantled town on the 2nd of January, and the fort surrendered at discretion. To impress the Nabob with a conviction of the power and resolution of the English who had come to avenge their wrongs an expedition was sent about a week after to the important post of Hooghly which submitted without resistance.

Recapit of the Nabob, 157

The Nabob had persuaded himself that the English would never again venture to set foot in

his dominions, and the news of these transactions filled him with indignation, and he lost no time in marching down to Calcutta with an army of 40,000 men. Clive was anxious for an accommodation, and offered him the most moderate and reasonable terms. But while the negotiations were in progress, the army of the Nabob was in full march towards the town, burning down the villages as it advanced. Two envoys whom Clive had sent on the 11th of February to request the Nabob to withdraw his army, if his intentions were pacific, were treated with contumely. Finding a contest inevitable, Clive determined to take the initiative, and, on the morning of the 5th, marched with his whole force, augmented by 600 marines, to the assault of the enemy's entrenchment, which lay to the north east of the town. But a little before sunrise he was confounded by one of those dense fogs which are common at that season of the year, and although his troops fought with the greatest gallantry, they became bewildered and disheartened, and he withdrew his force with the loss of more than 200 soldiers. But the Nabob was still more disheartened. He had lost twenty-two officers of distinction, he had never been so much involved in the perils of a battle before and, *passing at once from the extreme of arrogance to the extreme of pusillanimity*, hastened to make overtures of peace, and on the 9th of February a treaty was concluded by which all their former privileges were restored to the English, and permission was given to fortify Calcutta and to establish a mint, and a promise of compensation for their losses was held out.

Capture of  
Chandernagore,  
1757

Clive was directed, and had engaged, to return with the troops to Madras after the recovery of Calcutta, and he has been censured for disregarding his promise, but in his determination to remain in Bengal he exercised a wise discretion. Information had been received, through Aleppo, of a declaration of war between France and England on the 9th of May in the preceding year. Chandernagore was garrisoned with 700 Europeans. Bussy, with a

with the Company,—in which, however, they always complained of having been overreached,—and by his extensive commercial dealings throughout the country. He maintained the establishment of a prince in Calcutta, and rendered himself important at the Court of Moorshedabad. He accompanied Seraja Dowlah on his return to the capital, and became a great favourite with that weak prince. He daily attended the durbar, thrust himself into every affair, and acquired such influence in the public councils that the confederates were constrained to take him into their confidence, as the least of two evils.

Clive joins the  
Confederacy

As the plans of the party proceeded, Jugut Sett the banker, assured his friends that there was little, if any, chance of success without the co-operation of Clive, and they invited him to join them, holding out the most magnificent offers for the Company. Clive felt "that there could be neither peace nor security while such a monster as the Nuhah reigned," and readily entered into their plans notwithstanding the reluctance of the timid Council in Calcutta. A secret treaty was concluded between the confederates and Clive, the chief stipulations of which were that he should march with his army to Moorshedabad and place Meer Jassier on the throne, and that Meer Jassier should make the amplest reparation to the English for all losses, public and private. The whole scheme, however, had well nigh miscarried, through the rapacity of Omichund who came forward in the last stage, and demanded, by the threat of disclosure—which would have been certain death to all the confederates—the insertion of a specific article in the treaty, guaranteeing to him thirty lacs of rupees, and a commission of five per cent on all payments. Clive, on learning of this outrageous demand, came to the conclusion "that art and policy were warrantable to defeat the designs of such a villain," and he formed the plan of deceiving the man by a fictitious treaty, written on red paper, which provided for his demand, while the real treaty, authenticated by the seals and signatures of the con-

tracting parties, contained no such stipulation. Thus is the only act in the bold and arduous career of Clive, which, in the opinion of posterity, does not admit of vindication. But it is due to his memory to state that, to the end of his life, he conscientiously asserted the integrity of his motives and of his conduct on this occasion, and declared that he "would do it a hundred times over." When the treaty was complete, Meer Jaffer took an oath on the Koran to be faithful to his engagements, and to withdraw with his troops from the army of the Nabob, either before or on the day of the battle.

Battle of  
Plassy 1757

Clive, having concluded his arrangements, addressed a letter to the Nabob, recapitulating the grievances of which the English had to complain, and stating that he was coming to Moorsshedabad to submit them to the judgment of the darbar. He marched from Chandernagore, on the 13th June, with 1,000 Europeans, 2,000 natives, and eight pieces of cannon. On the 17th he reached Cutwa, and captured the fort, but looked in vain for Meer Jaffer, who had, in the meantime, taken another oath of fidelity to his master. On the 19th the rains set in with extremo violence, and Clive paused on the threshold of the campaign, doubting the propriety of opening it at the beginning of the rainy season, and on "their own bottom, without any assistance." But on second thoughts he felt he had advanced too far to recede, and that there would be more peril in returning than in advancing. The whole army crossed the river on the 22nd, and encamped for the night in the grove of Plassy, in the immediate neighbourhood of which the Nabob was posted with an army of 15,000 horse and 35,000 foot, in an entrenched camp. The next morning, the memorable 23rd of June, 1757, the Nabob's troops moved out and assaulted the English force which was sheltered by a high bank, but with little effect. About noon the enemy withdrew their artillery, and Clive advanced vigorously to the attack of their lines. Meer Mudun, the general in-chief, was mortally wounded, and expired in the presence of the Nabob, who was unable

any longer to control his terror, but mounted a camel and fled at the top of its speed accompanied by about 2,000 horse. His whole army immediately dispersed and this little, so momentous in its eventual result on the destiny of India was gained with the loss of only 72 killed and wounded on the part of the English, while, even on the side of the enemy, the casualties did not exceed 500. As soon as victory appeared to declare in favour of the English Meer Jaffier moved off with his troops and joined their standard. Seraja Dowlah, on his arrival at the capital, found himself deserted by his court, and, after passing a day in gloomy reflections, disguised himself in a mean dress and escaped out of a window in the palace at ten at night, with a favourite concubine and a eunuch, and embarked in a little boat which had been secured for him.

Elevation of  
Meer Jaffier  
1757

Clive entered Moorshedabad on the 29th of June, and proceeding to the palace, where all the great officers were assembled, conducted Meer Jaffier to the throne, and appointed him Subadar of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa. The change in the position and prospects of the English was so rapid and stupendous as almost to exceed belief. In June, 1756 Calcutta had been plundered and burnt, its European inhabitants murdered and the Company exterminated from Bengal. In June, 1757, they had recovered their capital, extinguished their European rivals, defeated and dethroned the Nalob and disposed of the government of the three provinces, with a population of twenty five millions, to their own partizan. In accordance with the terms of the treaty, the sum of two crores and twenty lacs of rupees was gradually paid out of the treasury at Moorshedabad, to make good the losses of the Company and of individuals. The first instalment of eighty lacs was conveyed to Calcutta in a triumphant procession, with bands playing and banners floating—a bright contrast to the spectacle of the previous year when Seraja Dowlah marched back to his capital with the plunder of Calcutta. While Clive was thus giving away a

were paraded on an elephant through the streets, and then buried in the tomb of his grandfather.

The Court of Directors on 11 May 1757 Intelligence of the destruction of Calcutta did not reach England for eleven months. On the 3rd of August, 1757, the Court of Directors wrote to the President in Calcutta: "On the 4th of June, we heard of the melancholy news of the loss of Fort William and the rest of our settlements in Bengal. On the 22nd day of July, Mr Holwell arrived on the *Sirea*, and gave a most agreeable turn to our thoughts by bringing advice of the recapture of Fort William." A few months after, they heard of the battle of *Plassy*, and the great revolution which had been effected by their troops. That victory more than realised the expectations which the Court had entertained seventy years ago, when they sent out Admiral Nicholson to make them "a nation in India." It had laid the foundation of a great empire. Yet so little conception had the Court of the high destiny which was opening before them that their chief source of gratification was derived from the hope that their servants in Bengal would now be able to provide the investment for two years without drawing on them.

Clive quells  
three revolts,  
1757

The first object of Meer Jaffer, after his elevation, was to plunder the Hindoo minister of finance, Roy-doorlah, and the officers who had amassed wealth in the governments conferred on them by *Aliverdy*. These proceedings provoked no fewer than three revolts within three months, in Behar, *Purneah*, and *Midnapore*. But they were quelled without bloodshed, by the mere exercise of Clive's influence, to whom the whole country looked up as to a demigod. The ascendancy which he thus acquired, though inseparable from his position and his genius, could not fail to lessen the importance of the Nabob, and to irritate his mind, while it gave umbrage to his family and his officers. They could not forget that it was only two years since the foreigners, who now bore the supremacy in Bengal,

had approached them as suppliants, with gifts and flatteries, and it required the most delicate management on the part of Clive to prevent the explosion of their discontent. A few months after the battle of Plassy, a Mahratta envoy arrived at Moorsshedabad to demand the arrears of *chout* now due for two years, but he soon found that the days of *chout* had ceased with the advent of the English.

Expedition to  
the coast Sep-  
tember 158.

The Court of Directors, on hearing of the great victory of Plassy, placed the government of Calcutta in the hands of Clive, and he was anxious to afford substantial relief to Madras, now menaced by Lally, but the presence of a formidable French force on the confines of Orissa, and of Law with 200 Europeans on the borders of Behar, combined with the growing alienation of the Nabob, made it impolitic to weaken Bengal. The number of European troops at Madras was, moreover, twice as large as the number at the disposal of Clive, and, above all, that settlement had Lawrence for its military commander, which Clive considered an ample guarantee of its safety. He, therefore, supplied it most liberally with funds from his own full treasury, and took steps to remove one cause of disquietude by an attack on the French possessions in the Northern Circars, now no longer protected by the genius of Bussy. He entrusted the expedition to Colonel Forde, one of the great soldiers created by the long continued wars on the Coast. Clive had begun to enlist the Rajpoots, and was enabled to send 2 000 sepoy with Forde, in addition to 500 Europeans and 14 guns. That officer landed at Vizagapatam, and, after defeating Bussy's feeble successor, the Marquis of Conflans, formed the bold design of laying siege to Masulipatam, the great stronghold of the French on the coast, though it was garrisoned by a larger force than that of the besiegers. Conflans solicited the immediate aid of the Nizam, Salabut Jung, who marched down to the coast with a large army in support of his friends. Forde, however, pushed the siege with such skill and energy as to oblige the French general to capitulate before the



just as it arrived within sight of Chinsurah, and defeated in half an hour. Immediately after the action, the Nabob's son, Meerun, appeared with an army of 7,000 men, who were destined to turn on the English if the fortune of the day had been different. Chve restored the vessels he had taken to the Dutch authorities, on their engaging to make good all the expense incurred in defeating their plans, and embarked for England on the 25th of February, 1760.

Ahmed Shah and the Mahratta-  
Mogul affairs. Ahmed Shah Abdallee returned to  
Persia, 1757—59

Persia in June, 1757, leaving his son, Timur, in charge of the Punjab, and Nujeeb ood dowlah in command at Delhi, to protect the emperor from the designs of Ghazee ood-deen. That profligate minister called the Mahrattas to his aid, and Raghoba, the fighting brother of the Peshwa, marched up to Delhi, and captured it after a month's siege. Nujeeb retreated to Robilcund, and Ghazee ood-deen was reinstated in the office of vizier. Soon after the capture of the capital by Raghoba, one Adina beg, a veteran intriguer in the Punjab, invited him to seize on that province, as well as Mooltan, and annex them to the Mahratta dominions. He marched to Lahore, in May, 1758, the Abdallees were totally routed, Prince Timur retreated to Persia, and the Mahratta standard was planted, for the first time, on the banks of the Indus. Raghoba then returned to the Deccan but with more glory than money, and, instead of the loads of booty which usually marked the return of the Mahratta expeditions, brought back a load of obligations little short of a crore of rupees. This disappointment gave rise to a serious altercation with Sudaseeb Rao Bhao, the cousin and civil administrator of the Peshwa. "Then take charge of the next expedition yourself" was the tart reply of Raghoba. The Peshwa took him at his word and compromised the differences between them by transferring the command of the army to Sudaseeb, generally known as the Bhao, and placing his brother at the head of the civil department.

Territory wrested  
from Salabut Jung  
1758

The Peshwa had been, for some time, engaged in intrigues for the acquisition of Ahmednugur, the most important city south of the Nerbudda, and, at length obtained possession of it by an act of base treachery. Thus aggression brought on hostilities with Salabut Jung and his brother, Nizam Ali, who had been recently reconciled to him. The master spirit of Bussy no longer animated the councils or the army of the Nizam. Ibrahim Khan Gardes, one of the ablest native generals of the time, who was in command of the sepoy battalions trained by Bussy, and a powerful and well served artillery, had been dismissed from the service. He immediately transferred his sword to the Peshwa, and, in the conflict now raging, contributed, in no small degree, to reduce Salabut Jung and his brother to such straits, that they were constrained to submit to the most humiliating conditions as the price of safety. A treaty was wrung from them, which conceded to the Mahrattas five of the most important fortresses in the Deccan, and some of its most flourishing districts, yielding a revenue of not less than sixty lacs of rupees a year. The Mahrattas had now reached the zenith of their power. Their authority was equally acknowledged on the banks of the Caverry and the Indus. All the territory within these limits, which was not their own, paid them tribute. The vast resources of the Mahratta community were guided by one head and directed to one object—the aggrandisement of the nation, and they now talked proudly of establishing Hindoo sovereignty over the whole of Hindostan. The only hope of preserving the country from subjection to this power, of which tyranny, rapine, and destruction were the constant attendants, now rested on the arms of a foreign potentate—Ahmed Shah Abdallee.

Fourth invasion  
of Ahmed Shah,  
1758

Raghu had left Mullar Rao Holkar and Dattajee Sindia to extort contributions from the Rajpoot princes, and to maintain the conquests he had made in the Panjab. At the instigation of Ghazeeooddeen,

Sindia sent his officers to invade Polawund, and in the course of a month they laid waste thirteen hundred villages in that flourishing province. The ulterior object of the vizier and of the Mahrattas was the possession of Oude, and as the Nabob dreaded them more than he hated the Rohillas, he entered into a treaty with Hafiz Rahmat, the bravest of their chiefs, and, in conjunction with Nujeeb ood dowlah drove Sindia across the Ganges with great slaughter. Just at this juncture both parties were astounded by the intelligence that Ahmed Shah was entering India with a grand army to recover and extend his conquests. The remembrance of the sack of Delhi by his troops gave a portentous character to this, his fourth invasion, and the Nabob and the Mahratta were induced, by a common alarm, to patch up an accommodation. The Abdlee crossed the Indus in September, 1759, and marched direct to Lahore. During his advance, the vizier, who had deprived his former master of sight, dreading the intercourse of the emperor with Ahmed Shah, on whom he felt that he had inflicted inexorable injury, gave orders for his assassination, and placed some unknown youth on the throne, who was however never acknowledged.

Murder of the  
emperor A. in  
year Nov. 1759

The two Mahratta chiefs, supported by their allies, the Jauts, advanced to encounter Ahmed Shah, but they were in two divisions widely separated from each other, and he resolved to attack them before they could form a junction. The army of Sindia was surprised, and two thirds of the troops, including the general, slaughtered. Holkar made all hasty to retreat, and might have escaped but he could not resist the temptation of turning out of his way to plunder a rich convoy of which he had received intimation. Ahmed Shah overtook him by forced marches of extraordinary length and routed him with great carnage. Of these reverses the Peshwa received information, immediately after he and his cousin had succeeded in wresting the forts and districts already mentioned from Salabut. The

Defeat of Sindia  
and Holkar  
1760

infantry should be left in his forts, and that the army should revert to the old system of warfare, and harass the enemy with incessant attacks and cut off his supplies, till the hot season obliged the Abdalee to withdraw his troops to a more congenial climate beyond the Indus. But this sage advice, though supported by the ablest of the Mahratta generals, was rejected with scorn by the Bhao. The city of Delhi was occupied almost without a struggle, and he was with difficulty dissuaded from proclaiming Wiswas Rao, the eldest son of the Peshwa, Emperor of India. But, in a spirit of wanton barbarity, he destroyed the monuments of art which even Nadir Shah had spared. Disgusted with these acts, and not less with the overbearing conduct of the Bhao, the Rajpoots and the Jauts withdrew from his army.

Movements of  
the Mahrattas  
and Moguls  
1760

Ahmed Shah was cordially supported by the Rohillas, and with less zeal by the Nabob of Oude. His regular army consisted of 38,000 foot and 41,800 horse, with seventy pieces of artillery. His irregular force was computed to be equally strong. After a variety of manœuvres the two armies confronted each other on the field of Paniput, where for the third time the fate of India was to be decided. The Bhao entrenched himself behind a ditch, forty feet wide and twelve feet deep. Ahmed Shah fortified his camp with felled trees. Numerous encounters took place from time to time between different detachments without any decisive result. The Rohillas and the Nabob of Oude were impatient to be led at once against the enemy, but the wary and experienced Abdalee prudently determined 'to wait the certain progress of famine in their encampment. The resources of the Mahrattas were gradually exhausted, their foraging parties were constantly driven back, and starvation stared them in the face, while the stench from the dead bodies of men and animals within the narrow limits of the camp became at length insupportable. Unable any longer to bear these privations and evils, men and officers equally demanded, in a voice of

Rao was found, and the Abdalee was with reluctance prevailed on to allow it to be burnt, instead of having it dried and stuffed, to take back with him to Cabul. Jankajee Sindia and the illustrious Ibrahim Khan Gardsee, were taken prisoners and put to death, the latter on the ground of having fought on the side of the Hindoos against the true believers. Only one fourth of the troops escaped, and the entire loss of the Mahrattas, from the beginning of the campaign, was computed at 200 000. Never was defeat more complete or more fatal. There were few families which had not lost some relative, and grief and despondency overspread the community. The Peshwa died of grief, and with him perished the prestige of his family. The formidable unity of the Mahratta power was destroyed, and the hope which the Mahrattas had cherished of becoming masters of all India, was at once and for ever annihilated.

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## CHAPTER XI

BENGAL, 1761—1772

Condition of  
India after the  
battle of Panipat,  
1761

THE battle of Panipat forms an important epoch in the modern annals of India, and a brief notice of the position and strength of the various princes at that period will serve to elucidate its subsequent history. The great empire of the Moguls was dissolved, and the emperor was wandering about in Behar, accompanied by a small band of mercenaries. In the districts around Delhi the Jauts on one side, and the Ichhillas on the other, were consolidating the power they had usurped. The Rajpoot rajas had been humbled during the encroachments of the Mahrattas and manifested little of their former energy. The Nabob vizier of Oude possessed a rich territory, and a large undisciplined army, but was deficient in every military

quality, except courage. The Mahratta dream of universal empire in India under a Hindoo sceptre, had been dissipated by the recent defeat, and although the Peshwa was still the head of the federation, its power was henceforth partitioned among the Guickwar, the raja of Nagpore, and Holkar and Sindia, who were seldom at peace with each other. The Nizam at Hyderabad, had been crippled by the surrender of some of his most valuable districts to the Mahrattas. The power of the French was completely broken. In the south of the peninsula, the Nabob of the Carnatic had been seated on the throne by the English, and was maintained solely by their arms, and Hyder Ali was on the point of grasping the supreme control in Mysore. The power destined eventually to bring these various principalities 'under one umbrella,' had recently subdued its European rivals in the south, and established its predominance in the valley of the Ganges, but was contemplating nothing so little as the conquest of India.

Clive had become so completely identified with the existence of British power in Bengal, that his departure appeared to those who remained, as if the soul was departing from the government. He was succeeded in the chair by Mr Vansittart, a Madras civilian, a man of the greatest probity, but utterly incompetent to manage the complicated machinery of the government. The appointment, though recommended by Clive, proved in every respect disastrous. The members of the Bengal Council were irritated by his intrusion into a seat which they considered to belong to them of right, and set themselves to thwart his measures, at a period when the exigencies of a novel and foreign administration required the greatest unanimity. Soon after Mr Vansittart's appointment, moreover, an order from the Court of Directors reached Calcutta summarily dismissing three of the ablest and most experienced members of Council, on account of a contumacious letter which had been provoked by their own arbitrary proceedings. The opponents of Mr Vansittart thus obtained a majority in the Council, and

Vansittart,  
Governor of  
Bengal 1800-01

this circumstance, combined with his imbecility, rendered the four years of his administration a period of extraordinary criminality.

Invasion of  
Behar by the  
Shah zada, 1760

The Shah Zada, the son of the emperor, invaded Behar a second time at the beginning of 1760, with the rabble of troops he had collected round him. As already stated, the intelligence of his father's death reached him after he had crossed the Curumnussa, and he immediately assumed the imperial dignity with the title of Shah Alum, which brought a large accession of troops to his standard. The Nabob of Oude was appointed vizier of this relic of an empire, and, in the hope of adding Behar to his territories, joined the emperor with a considerable force. Colonel Calhaud, one of the generals created by the wars on the coast, the comrade of Lawrence and Clive, of Coote and Forde, had been sent up from Madras to take the command of the army in Bengal, and had proceeded to Moorshedabad, where Clive, then on the eve of embarking for England, was making the necessary dispositions for repelling the invasion. Meer Jaffer contributed 15,000 horse to the expedition under the command of his son, Meerun, whose oppressions had made even Seraja Dowla an object of regret. The united forces of the emperor and the vizier advanced towards Patna on one side, while Colonel Calhaud was moving up in an opposite direction to its succour. Ramnarayun, the Hindoo governor, had been strictly enjoined to await the arrival of these reinforcements, but he chose to march out and encounter the enemy alone, and was totally defeated. The city must have surrendered at discretion, if it had been immediately invested, but the emperor wasted the precious moments in plundering the district. On the 20th of February, Colonel Calhaud came up with the emperor, and, notwithstanding the misconduct of Meerun's horse, completely routed his army.

The Emperor  
marches to  
Moorshedabad  
1 CO.

The emperor had received the promise of assistance from the Mahrattas, and made a sudden and rapid march through the hills on Moorshedabad

to meet them. Callaud lost no time in following his steps, and the two armies confronted each other about thirty miles from that city. But the emperor, hearing nothing of his allies, abruptly broke up his camp and marched back to Patna, to which he had close siege for nine days. All hope of prolonging the defence was fading away, when Captain Knox, who had advanced from Bengal by forced marches to its rescue, at the hottest season of the year, was descried approaching it with a small force. The following day the two armies met, and the emperor was defeated, and his force dispersed. The Nabob of Purneah, who had been for some time intriguing with the emperor, now advanced to his assistance with 30,000 men and thirty pieces of cannon. Captain Knox, to the utter amazement of the natives of Patna, immediately crossed the Ganges to oppose his progress, with a handful of men not exceeding a battalion of sepoy and 200 Europeans, and a small squadron of cavalry. The native historian of that period vividly describes the breathless anxiety with which the inhabitants crowded on the walls to watch the issue of this desperate encounter. It was one of those battles in the early career of the English which gave prestige to their arms, and bewildered the native princes. It lasted six hours, and ended in the total defeat of the enemy. The result of the conflict was rendered the more grateful to the natives by the extraordinary valour displayed by one of their own country, raja Shitahroy, and by the high encomium bestowed on him by the English commander, as they entered the city together covered with dust. Colonel Callaud and Meerun soon after arrived at Patna, and proceeded across the river to follow up the victory. But they had not marched far when Meerun, as he lay on his couch listening to a tale, was struck dead by a thunderbolt, and the country was rid of a monster, in whose cabinet was found a list of three hundred men of note whom he had doomed to destruction on his return.

Death of  
Meerun, July 2,  
1680



Meer Jaffier  
d. post 1760

The vigour of Meerun, in spite of his profligacy, had been the mainstay of the government of Moorshedabad, and his death brought on an immediate crisis. Meer Jaffier lost the little reason he ever possessed, and the administration fell into a state of complete anarchy. The troops surrounded the palace, and demanded the arrears of their pay with loud menaces, when Meer Cassim, the Nabob's son-in-law, came forward and offered to satisfy their claims from his own funds, on condition of being appointed the successor of Meerun. The Nabob accepted his terms and his services, but, in an evil hour, sent him to Calcutta, to make pecuniary arrangements, in his name, with the Council. They had an expensive war on their hands, without a rupee in their exchequer. The treasure accumulated at Moorshedabad had been exhausted, and, in the confusion and scramble of the times, no thought had been bestowed on the future. The imbecile Meer Jaffier was not the man to remove their embarrassments, on the other hand, Meer Cassim appeared to possess great talent and energy. Mr Holwell, who had taken the command of Fort William when it was deserted by Mr Duple, was the inveterate enemy of Meer Jaffier, and urged his colleagues at once to determine on deposing him, and elevating his son-in-law to the throne. After a show of hesitation, the members of the Council adopted his advice, and Mr Vansittart was requested to proceed to Moorshedabad with 180 Europeans, 600 sepoys, and four guns, to persuade Meer Jaffier to resign the government of the three soobahs. The old man refused to abdicate, and threatened to appeal to Clive, his friend and protector, but the arguments of Mr Vansittart were irresistible, and he was obliged to submit to his fate, only stipulating for a safe asylum in Calcutta well knowing that in India deposition meant death. Meer Cassim became soobadar, and, as the price of his elevation, ceded to the Company the three districts of Midnapore Chittagong and Burdwan, which were then estimated to furnish a third of the

Meer Cassim  
Nabob 1760-  
1761

to the Tower proof muskets; he established a foundry for casting cannon, and trained up a corps of artillerymen who would have done credit to the Company's service. Nothing was wanting to render Meer Cassim more powerful than Alivardi Khan had ever been, but a few years of undisturbed leisure

Transactions  
with the  
emperor 1761

The emperor, Shah Alum, unable to regain his capital, lingered within the limits of Behar with a horde of troops, which wasted the districts like a flight of locusts. As soon, therefore, as the rains of 1761 had subsided, Colonel Carnac marched to Gya with an English force and dispersed them. Law, the French general, whose little band of Europeans had been the chief support of the prince, was taken prisoner on this occasion. The distinguished courtesy with which he was treated by the English commander, confounded the ideas of the natives, who expected that he would have been led out to immediate execution, in accordance with the practice of oriental warfare. "Nothing," exclaims the native historian in his remark on this circumstance, "can be more modest and becoming than the behaviour of these strangers, whether in the heat of action, or in the pride of success." After the action, Colonel Carnac sent raja Shitabroy with a conciliatory message to the emperor, which was cordially welcomed, and he was conducted with suitable honours to Patna. Meer Cassim felt no little alarm on hearing of this friendly intercourse between the English commander and his own liege sovereign, and hastened to the English camp, but sullenly refused to pay his respects to the emperor. Colonel Carnac obviated his objections by bringing the parties together in his own tent, when Shah Alum received the homage of the nabob, and conferred on him the office of soobadar of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa, and obtained in return the promise of an annual payment of twenty four lacs of rupees. The emperor then proceeded on his route to Delhi, and, on taking leave of the colonel, made an offer to the Company of the dewanny of the three provinces.

Spoliation of  
Ramnarayun,  
1762.

One of the earliest objects of Meer Cassim after his elevation was the spoliation of the great provincial officers, who had amassed wealth in their respective governments. Ramnarayun, the Governor of Patna, was destined to be the first victim, but the Council in Calcutta had pledged their honour to protect him from the designs of his enemies, and the Nabob was for a time baffled. But Mr Vansittart yielded at length to his importunities, Colonels Coote and Carnac, who insisted on keeping faith with Ramnarayun, were removed from the province, and Meer Cassim was left to wreak his vengeance on him. The unfortunate governor was immediately seized and despoiled, while his subordinate officers were pursued with all the ardour of cupidity, and tortured to disclose their wealth. Of all the proceedings of the feeble Vansittart, this was considered the most baneful, inasmuch as it destroyed the confidence which the natives had hitherto reposed in the protection of the Company's officers, and strengthened the hands of the Nabob, whose hostility to the English was daily becoming more palpable.

The transit  
duties, 162.

Meer Cassim had made great progress in consolidating his government, when a storm was raised by the unprincipled conduct of the Council board in Calcutta, which eventually swept him from the throne. From the days of Munoo, the duties levied on the transit of merchandise through the country had formed one of the principal sources of the public revenue, and the highways of commerce, both by land and by water, were obstructed by custom houses. Under the old imperial firmans, the goods of the Company intended for export by sea were allowed to pass duty free, when protected by the *dustuck*, or permit of the President. But the battle of Plassey transferred the power of the state to the Company, that is, to their servants, and they rushed eagerly into the inland trade of the country and claimed the same exemption from duty for their own goods, which had been conceded to the merchandise of their rivals.

Their servants and dependants soon came to demand the same privileges for their own adventures. The native merchants, moreover, anxious to pass their goods duty free, were led to purchase *du tucks* from some of the Company's servants, even at a high premium, and the boys in the service, with less pay than fifty rupees a month, were enabled to realise an income of 15,000 or 20,000 rupees a year. To increase the confusion, any native trader who wished to evade the duties, had only to hoist the English *mehan*, or flag, on passing a custom-house. In every instance in which this symbol of impunity was not respected, sepoy's were sent to drag the Nabob's officers as culprits to the nearest factory, and they soon came to understand the danger of offering the slightest resistance to the most glaring frauds. The Nabob was deprived of his revenues; the entire trade of the country was disorganised, and nothing appeared on every side but the most perious confusion.

sidered themselves masters of the country, it appeared intolerable that their commercial agents should be subjected to the authority of one whom they had themselves raised to the throne, and to the insolence, as they deemed it, of his servants. All the members of Council at the out stations were called down to Calcutta, to overawe the President, and they declared that they would pay no higher duty than two and a half per cent, and that on the article of salt alone

The Nabob, incensed by this declaration, determined to place his own subjects and the foreigners upon an equality by abolishing all transit duties throughout the country. The members of Council voted this measure a crime, and demanded, as a matter of right, that the native trade should be subject to the usual duties, while their own was exempted from them. It was in vain that Mr Vansittart raised his voice against this iniquitous doctrine, he was supported only by Mr Hastings. From words the Council at length came to blows, and Stanlake Bateson one of its most turbulent members, denounced Mr Hastings as a partizan of the Nabob, and struck him a blow which led to a hostile challenge. After having passed this disgraceful resolution, the majority deputed Mr Hay and Mr Amyatt to announce it to the Nabob at Mongher.

During these transactions a boat proceeding to Patna with concealed arms, was searched and detained by the Nabob's officers. The affairs of the Company in that city were unfortunately at this juncture under the direction of Mr Ellis one of the most unscrupulous and head-strong of all the public servants. He had violently opposed the elevation of Meer Cassim, and seemed now to be anxious to precipitate a rupture with him. The boat was eventually released, but Mr Ellis continued his hostile preparations with so little disguise that Meer Cassim thought fit to detain Mr Hay as a hostage for some of his own servants who had been seized, but Mr Amyatt was allowed to return to Calcutta. Mr Ellis waited for the day which

The Nabob  
abolished all  
duties, 1 63.

Mr Ellis in  
ten pers a con-  
duct, 1 63.

had been fixed for their departure, and when he calculated that both of them were beyond the reach of the Nabob, seized on the city of Patna. The native commandant was obliged to retire, but on hearing that the European soldiers were confused with liquor, returned suddenly and recaptured the town. Mr Ellis and the English gentlemen took refuge in their boats and proceeded up the river, but were overtaken and brought back prisoners to Patna. The Nabob, incensed at this outrage, ordered every Englishman throughout his dominions to be seized, and Mr Amyatt, then on his way to Calcutta, having refused to surrender, was slain in the scuffle. The Setts, the great bankers of Moorshedabad, who were possessed of incredible wealth, and had manifested a favourable disposition to the English, were at the same time seized and conveyed to Monghur.

four hours, and, in the opinion of Clive, never did troops fight better than those of the Nabob. At one period of the action, indeed, they penetrated the English lines and captured two guns, and victory appeared, for a time, likely to incline to them, but the gallantry of the Europeans, and the steadiness of the sepoys bore down all opposition, and the Nabob's troops were constrained to abandon all their guns and stores, and retreat to Oodwanulla.

This reverse threw Meer Cassim into a paroxysm of rage, and he gave way to the ferocity of his disposition. Rammnarayan, the deposed governor of Patna, was cast into the river with weights attached to his neck. Raja Rajbullub, the former governor of Dacca, was put to death, with all his sons. The Moorshedabad bankers were thrown into the Ganges from one of the bastions of the fort of Monghur. One of their favourite servants, the faithful Chunco, begged permission to share their fate, and when his request was denied, plunged into the river, determined not to survive them. Early in the month of November, the English army carried the entrenched camp at Oodwanulla, and the Nabob fled to Patna. But before his departure he ordered his officers to proceed to the house where his European prisoners were confined, and put them to death without distinction. They nobly replied that they were soldiers and not executioners. "Turn them out," they said, "with arms in their hands, and we will fight them to the death." But there was in the camp one Walter Raymond, who had been a sergeant in the French service, and now, under the name of Sumroo, held a commission in the Nabob's army, who came forward and offered to do the bloody deed. The wretch proceeded to the house with a file of soldiers, and poured in volley after volley through the venetian windows upon the defenceless victims, till forty-eight gentlemen—among whom was Mr Ellis—and 100 soldiers lay stretched on the floor. Patna was captured on the 6th of November, and the campaign ended in four months by the flight of Meer Cassim to the court of the

His sacrifice of the  
English prisoners,  
vol. 1, p. 63.

The Nabob  
viceroy comes  
to Patna, 1761.

Nabob vizier The vizier had fought by the side of Ahmed Shah Abdalee at Pampat, and, in the language of the native historian, "considered himself a second Rustum." He determined to take advantage of the confusion of the times, and, six months after the termination of the war with Meer Cassim, marched down to Patna with a large but ill trained army. It was an act of wanton aggression. On his part, dictated by ambition and avarice. The emperor and the dismembered Nabob of Bengal joined his camp with a small body of followers. The English army in the field was straitened for provisions, and retired to the city of Patna which was vigorously attacked on the 3rd of May, 1761. The assailants were repulsed, but not without great difficulty, and not before the close of the day. The Nabob vizier, after hovering about Patna for four weeks, retired to Buxar to encamp for the rains.



consisting of native officers, and found guilty. The Major ordered four of them to be blown away from the guns, when four noble looking grenadiers came forward, and demanded to be the first to suffer, as they had always been the foremost in danger. The European officers then reported that the sepoy had announced their firm resolution not to allow any further executions, but the unflinching commander loaded his guns with grape, placed his European soldiers in the intervals, and commanded the native battalions to ground arms, threatening to discharge the guns on them if a single man was seen to move. The sepoy were awed by his resolution, sixteen more were blown away, the mutiny was quenched in their blood, and discipline was restored. This was the first of that series of mutinies which broke out from time to time among the native sepoy—chiefly after a successful campaign, when they are least amenable to reason—and terminated in less than a century in the dissolution of the whole Bengal army. Major Munro shewed his masters how the insubordination of a poy was to be dealt with, and there can be no doubt that if the same spirit and promptitude had been exhibited on every future emergency, the result would have been equally auspicious.

Battle of Buxar  
October 23,  
1764.

This example of severity restored the discipline of the army so effectually that within four months of the mutiny, Major Munro did not hesitate to lead his troops against the Nabob vazier, who had been encamped for several months at Buxar with an army of 50 000 men. On the 23rd of October he was attacked and completely routed, and obliged to abandon his camp, with all its stores and 130 pieces of cannon. The victory of Buxar was scarcely less important to the interests of the Company than that of Plissy. It demolished the power of the Vazier, Soorjood dowlah the only chief of any importance in the north. It made the English masters of the entire valley of the Ganges, from the Himalayan to the sea, and placed Hindostan at their feet. The Nabob sent off his women and his treasure to Barilly, and

was, moreover, provided that this nefarious claim should be satisfied before any payment was made to the Company's treasury for the expenses of the war, which were met by the ingenious device of lending to the Government at an exorbitant rate of interest, the sums paid to individuals by the Nabob. The effrontery exhibited during these five years' of crime makes one blush for the honour of England, and the only relief to the mind is to be found in the consideration that it was an exceptional case.

These importunities, combined with the age and infirmities of the Nabob, hastened his end, and he expired in January, 1765. Then came the question of appointing his successor. The making of Nabobs had been, for seven years, one of the most lucrative employments of the Council, and the fourth opportunity which was now presented, was not to be neglected. Mr Vansittart had retired from the chair, and was succeeded by Mr Spencer, a Bombay civilian, without either talent or probity. The Court of Directors, exasperated by the unquity of their servants in Calcutta, had issued peremptory orders for the suppression of the inland trade, and for the execution of "covenants," binding them not to receive presents from native princes. These injunctions reached Calcutta before the death of Meer Jaffier. Mr Spencer and his colleagues, were, moreover, aware that Lord Clive was on the eve of embarking for India to root out abuses, no time was, therefore, to be lost in the appointment of another Nabob. The covenants were thrown aside, and Nujum ood-dowlah, the son of Meer Jaffier, was raised to the throne, and required to make donations to the members of the Council to the extent of twenty lacs of rupees, as well as to sanction the inland trade, exempt from the payment of all duty.

Clive, on his return to England in 1769, was received with great distinction by the king, the minister, Mr Pitt, and the nation, and honoured with an Irish peerage. The India House, likewise, paid

homage to his talents and his success; but the Court of Directors was scarcely less demoralized by intrigue and jobbery than the Council board in Calcutta by venality and rapacity, and Clive was speedily brought into collision with the leading faction, at the head of which was Mr Sullivan. In 1757, Meer Jaffer had ceded to the Company certain lands lying to the south of Calcutta, of the annual value of ten lacs of rupees, reserving to himself the quit-rent of three lacs a year. Two years after, the Nabob manifested his gratitude for the services of Clive by making him a donation of the quit-rent, which he received for several years without interruption. But Mr Sullivan and his party having gained the ascendancy in the Court of Directors in 1763, sent out orders to Calcutta, without any communication with Clive, to withhold the usual payment, assigning no other reason for this act of injustice than the cessation of all cordiality between him and the Court. Clive was, therefore, obliged to file a bill in chancery for the recovery of his rights. But while this contest was raging, intelligence was received in London of the war with Meer Cassim, the massacre of the European prisoners, and the total disorganization of the government in Calcutta. The proprietors of India stock stw with dismay the golden dreams of prosperity in which they had indulged vanishing away, and, in spite of the opposition of the Directors, resolved to send out the man to whom they owed all their greatness, to retrieve their affairs. They determined also to entrust the powers of government, which had hitherto been vested in a council of sixteen, to a select committee of five. Clive was surrounded by friends and admirers, and in the enjoyment of an income of four lacs of rupees a year, there was therefore no inducement for him to return to India, but he had been actuated throughout life by a high sense of duty, and he did not hesitate to accept the charge of a government which was justly described as "headstrong and corrupt, and lost to every sense of honour."

Clive landed at Calcutta on the 3rd of May, and found

that the political dangers had passed off Meer Cassim had been expelled from Bengal the Nabob vizier had been vanquished and the emperor was a suppliant But there were other and more alarming perils to be encountered Vast fortunes had been amassed by "the most nefarious and oppressive conduct ever known in any age or country The power of the Company's servants had been employed in levying contributions on every class from the Nabob down to the lowest zemindar Even the exaction of twenty lacs of rupees from the young Nabob on his elevation, in defiance of the express orders of the Court of Directors, was openly avowed without a blush Luxury, corruption and debauchery pervaded every rank of the service, and threatened the dissolution of all government Clive found Spencer, the governor, 'as deep in the mire as any other, and he felt himself justified in affirming that 'there were not five men of principle left at the Presidency' The massacre of the English gentlemen by Sumroo had thinned the ranks of the civil service, many of the seniors had returned to England laden with plunder, and young men had thus been pushed forward to posts of importance, with little judgment or experience, but inflamed with the most extravagant expectations by the success of those who had preceded them Clive's first duty was to enforce the execution of the covenants which abolished the receipt of presents, but he was met on the threshold by an attempt to question the powers of the Select Committee, and an effort was made to brow beat him, but he soon reduced the refractory to silence by declaring that he would not allow his authority to be controverted for a moment, and that he would peremptorily dismiss from the service every officer who refused to sign the covenants

On the 25th of June, Clive left Calcutta for the upper provinces to dispose of the weighty questions which awaited his decision He attributed the recent war with Meer Cassim to the impru

Arrangement  
with the nabob,  
the vizier and  
the emperor  
1765.

dence of Mr Vansittart, in advising him to form and discipline an army, and to render it efficient by just and punctual payment. To prevent the recurrence of this cause of anxiety, the Nabob of Moorsbedabad was relieved of all responsibility for the military defence of the country, and of the management of the revenue. The sum of fifty-three lacs of rupees a year was assigned him for the expenses of his court and the administration of justice. He received the proposal with ecstacy. "Thank God," he exclaimed, "I shall now have as many dancing girls as I like." With regard to the Nabob vizier, he had invaded Behar without the least provocation, on the mere impulse of cupidity, but his power had been irretrievably crushed by the battle of Buxar, the capture of Lucknow, and a second defeat at Corah. Seeing his fortunes desperate, he repaired to the camp of General Carnic, and threw himself on the consideration of the English authorities. His kingdom was forfeited by the laws of war and the usage of the country, but Clive evinced his moderation by restoring it to him, with the exception of the two districts of Corah and Allahabad, which were reserved for the emperor. Such an instance of generosity in a victorious enemy was unknown in India, and excited emotions of the deepest gratitude. The emperor, though he had appeared in arms against the English at the battle of Buxar, was gratified with the revenues of the two districts assigned to him, which, with the annual payment of twenty six lacs of rupees from Bengal and Behar, for which he was likewise indebted to the kindness of the English chief, constituted his whole dependence.

The Dewanny  
Aug 12, 1765

After the completion of these arrangements, Clive requested that the Dewanny of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa, which the emperor had repeatedly offered to the Company, should be conferred on them by an imperial firman. The act was completed on the 12th of August, 1765, a memorable day in the political and constitutional history of British India. As a substitute for a throne, two dining tables were joined together in Clive's tent, and covered with car-

such a force that all the powers in Hindostan cannot deprive us of our possessions for many years,' little dreaming that within a few months, the existence of that power would be endangered by that very force. The military expenses had hitherto swallowed up the resources of the Company. The army considered itself the most important department of the state and the commanders, in the pride of their position, had endeavoured to imbue the native princes with the conviction that the power of the British government was lodged with them rather than with the civil authorities in Calcutta. A few months more of Mr Spencer's servile administration would probably have rendered them masters of the country. The officers had been in the habit of receiving an allowance called *batta* when they took the field. Meer Jaffer, out of gratitude for his elevation, had increased this gratuity, and the army soon came to consider double *batta* as their right. When the Court of Directors became responsible for the finances of the country, they resolved to discontinue this extravagant allowance, but the officers resented any interference with their interests, and the Council board was deterred by their imperiousness from carrying the orders into execution. The abolition of the double *batta* was enjoined on Clive when he was leaving England, and he lost no time, after his arrival, in announcing that it would cease after the 1st of January, 1766. The officers were little disposed to submit to a measure which affected even a captain's allowance to the extent of 1,000 rupees a month and those in the higher grades in a larger proportion. The announcement of the order was the signal for mutiny and a universal combination was formed to compel Clive to retract it. A committee of secrecy was organized in each of the three brigades, and a fund created to reimburse officers for any loss they might sustain and to this fund the discontented and factious civilians in Calcutta contributed more than a lac and a half of rupees. It was agreed that two hundred officers should throw up their commissions on the same day, and as an

example of all other commercial companies, in restricting their agents abroad to a mere pittance of salary, and allowing them to eke it out by private trade, and thus were the servants enriched at the expense of the masters. The same system was continued when the factory had expanded into a kingdom, and their servants entered on the government of provinces with unchecked power. The consequence was that from the governor to the youngest writer, from the general to the ensign, not excepting even the chaplains, all classes were busily engaged in commercial pursuits, which were rendered lucrative by the influence of their dominant position. In April, 1764, the Court of Directors thought that the evil might be remedied, simply by ordering that the trade should cease, without proposing any compensation to their officers; but in a subsequent despatch they had the wisdom to modify this order by directing Clive to devise some equitable plan which should be satisfactory both to the government and the service. Clive felt that it was indispensable to the peace and prosperity of the country that the servants of the state should not be allowed to compete with the native dealers in every market, and equally indispensable to the integrity and efficiency of the public service that the officers of the government should not be left to starve in the midst of wealth which their position enabled them to grasp. He, therefore, established a Society for conducting a traffic in salt, on the principle of a monopoly, the profits of which, after a reservation of ten lacs of rupees a-year to the Company, should be divided among the servants of the Company according to their rank; the member of Council and the colonel receiving 70,000 rupees a-year, and the subordinate officers, civil and military, in due proportion. The scheme continued in operation for two years, and was then abolished by orders from home, which substituted in its stead a commission of two-and-a-half per cent. on the gross revenue of the provinces.

After a residence of twenty-two months in India, Clive was driven back to England by a

severe attack of disease. In the large transactions in which he had been engaged, involving the fate of great kingdoms, and the disposal of crores of rupees, he might easily have added fifty lacs of rupees to his fortune, but he returned to his native land poorer than he had left it. It has fallen to the lot of few men to exercise so important and permanent an influence on the course of human affairs. When he landed in Calcutta in 1757, he found the Company's factory in ruins, and their servants in exile. By 1767, he had made the Company the sovereigns of twenty five millions of people, and masters of a revenue, little short of one half that of England. He had laid the foundation of a great empire containing an irrepressible element of expansion. He had established the supremacy of Europe in Asia. His reception in England corresponded at first with his eminent merits, but it was not long before he was made to taste the bitterness of ingratitude. His greatness excited envy and censure. The members of the civil service, whose rapacity he had defeated abroad, made large purchases of India stock on their return to England, and became members of the corporation in Leadenhall street, that they might more effectually wreak their vengeance on him. His rancorous enemy, Sullivan, endeavoured by garbled statements to persuade Parliament that all the difficulties of the Company were to be attributed to his measures. The Court of Directors restored almost every civil and military culprit whom he had cashiered for peculation or mutiny. The Attorney General proposed to confiscate all the donations he had received from native princes in India, and the Prime Minister joined the hue and cry against him. In Parliament his conduct was described by his opponents "as a mass of the most unheard of villanies and corruption." But when a vote of censure was pressed on the House, the members shrunk from the scandal of fixing a brand of infamy on the man who had given England a kingdom larger than itself, and came to the resolution that he had rendered great and



meritorious services to his country. But his lofty spirit could ill brook the persecution he had been subjected to, and under the pressure of bodily and mental suffering, he put a period to his existence in November, 1774.

Death of  
Clive 1774

Lord Clive was succeeded in the government by Mr Verelst, a man of strict integrity, but without sufficient resolution to cope with the disorders of the times. Clive, with all his genius, had committed the great error of establishing the system of double government, which for five years proved to be the curse of Bengal. The administration was nominally vested in the Nabob, to whose name the revenue was collected and justice administered, by native officers, but the irresistible power of the rapacious servants of the Company paralysed the whole system of government, and introduced endless intrigue and oppression. Those whom Clive had constrained to sign the covenants against presents, treated them as waste paper as soon as his back was turned, and plunged with increased ardour and perfect impunity into the trade of the country. Every man who was permitted to make out a bill, made a fortune and the exorbitant charges of contractors, commissaries, engineers, and other officers drained the treasury. The Council was without the power, even if they had possessed the will, to check these abuses. The three natives who managed the revenues enriched themselves, and left the governor to borrow money for the public service. It was at this period, and through their connivance, that the great majority of rent free tenures was created, and an annual revenue little short of forty lacs of rupees was alienated from the resources of the state. It was a period of transition between the dissolution of the old Mohammedan government and the vigorous development of British sovereignty, and it was as usual fruitful of anomalies, and not wanting in guilt. These evils were aggravated to a fearful extent by the great famine of 1770, which swept away one third of the population of the lower provinces.

Wretched con-  
dition of Ben-  
gal, 1767

## CHAPTER XII

## PROGRESS OF EVENTS AT MADRAS AND BOMBAY, 1761—1772

*State of affairs at Madras.* To return now to the progress of events at the Madras Presidency. The extinction of the French power in India by the capture of Pondicherry, had given Mahomed Ali, the ally of the English, the undisputed title of Nabob of the Carnatic, and, though he had afforded them no assistance during the war, he regarded himself as the absolute ruler of the country. But he was conspicuous even among the princes of India for his imbecility, and his army was a mere rabble, which devoured the resources of a territory they were unable to protect. The Company thus found themselves, by the issue of the war, saddled with the defence of a province comprising 50,000 square miles without any resources for the maintenance of a costly army, but the profits of their trade, which belonged to their constituents in London. They were constrained, therefore, to demand a contribution of fifty lacs of rupees from Mahomed Ali to discharge the obligations they had contracted during the recent conflict. But the Carnatic had been without any settled government for twenty years, every invader had desolated its districts, and the poligars paid no revenue but at the sword's point. The country was moreover, now in the hands of a court at once wasteful and neglectful, which had been subsisting for many years on loans raised on exorbitant terms at Madras, which impaired the strength of those who borrowed the money, and the morals of those who lent it.

*Affairs of Tanjore, 1763.* To meet this demand the Nabob proposed to the government of Madras to despoil the governors of Vellore and the Marawars, and more particularly the rajah of Tanjore, whose principality had, to a certain extent, escaped the ravages of war and which he was anxious to appropriate to himself. Tanjore was an independent province,

facled the Nizam at Tripety, but he had no mind to try conclusions with them, and instantly evacuated the country. During these events, Clive happened to touch at Madras on his way to Calcutta, and was requested by the Nabob to obtain a firman from Delhi, releasing him from dependence on the Nizam, and on the 12th of August in the same year, Mahomed Ali was empowered by the emperor's sunnad to hold his sief directly of the imperial crown.

Acquisit on of  
the Northern  
sircars, 17th  
Aug. 1 66.

To meet the expenses of their military establishment at Madras, the Court of Directors were anxious to obtain a permanent right to the Northern sircars on the Coromandel coast, which had fur-

nished the sinews of war to Bussey, and which were embraced in the districts ceded to Colonel Forde by Salabut Jung in 1758. The Madras President had, at one time, offered to farm them of the Nizam at a high rent, but the proposal was declined. Clive, however, during his second administration, disposed of the question in a very summary manner. On the memorable 12th of August, when he received the Dewanny from the emperor, he likewise requested an imperial grant of the Northern sircars for the Company, which was necessarily granted. The Nizam, who had already lost his hold on the Carnatic, was not disposed tamely to part with this province likewise, and on hearing that an English force had been sent to take possession of the districts, threatened to march down and exterminate them, and also made preparations for the invasion of the Carnatic. The timid Presidency of Madras, alarmed at these menaces, directed their commander, General Callaud, to suspend all military operations, and proceed to Hyderabad to enter into negotiations with the Nizam.

Treaty w th the  
Nizam, 17th  
Nov 1 66.

They resulted in the disastrous and humiliating treaty of the 12th of November, 1766, by which the Madras authorities agreed to hold the Northern

sircars, which had been conferred on them by the paramount power in India, as a tributary tenure under the Nizam at eight lacs of rupees a year, and, in addition, to make an immediate

donation of five lacs. But what was still more objectionable, the President involved the Company in the intricate web of Decan politics, by engaging to furnish the Nizam with two, battalions of infantry and six pieces of cannon, "to settle, in everything right and proper, the affairs of his highness's government," well knowing that the first requisition for the troops would be to assist in attacking Hyder Ali, who had recently usurped the Mysore throne, and against whom a confederacy had been formed of the Mahrattas and the Nizam.

Life of  
Hyder Ali.

We turn, therefore, to the rise and progress of this extraordinary chief, who proved, eventually to be the most formidable and inveterate foe the English ever encountered in India. The principality of Mysore was one of the provinces of the Hindoo kingdom of Bejuynugur, which was extinguished on the field of Tellicotta in 1564. In the confusion created by this event, it fell to the lot of a Hindoo prince, whose descendants continued, for two centuries, to maintain their independence and to encroach on their neighbours. About the year 1750, the old dynasty having become effete, the whole power of the state fell into the hands of the minister, Nunnjeraj. It was at this juncture that Hyder appeared on the scene, and, in a few years, superseded both king and minister. His family came originally from the Punjab, and his father, Futteh Mahomed, gradually rose to be a sirdar of peons, or head constable, and then obtained the command of a small body of troops. Hyder was born about the year 1702, and, as he advanced in years, gave himself up to the pleasures of the chase, and plunged into voluptuous riot. Like Sevajee, he was never able to read or write, but this deficiency was in some measure supplied by an extraordinary memory. He remained in complete obscurity during forty seven years of his life, and first entered the Mysore army as a volunteer at the siege of Deonhully, where his energy and self possession attracted the notice of Nunnjeraj.

The foundation  
of his fortune,  
1. 55

The minister immediately promoted him to the command of 50 horse and 200 infantry, with instructions to augment their number, and it was this commission which laid the foundation of his future fortune. In 1755, the difficult task of providing for the safety of the fortress of Dindigul, lying to the south of Trichinopoly, was committed to him, and it was while in command of this post that he appears first to have entertained those ambitious views which he was enabled to bring to a consummation in the brief space of six years. Dindigul became the cradle of his power, and it was there that he increased his resources by a system of plunder, of which there had been no example since the days of Servajee. His troops were let loose indiscriminately on every one, friend or foe, who had anything to lose, and their zeal was sharpened by permission to retain half the booty for themselves. Hyder's progress to power was aided in no small degree by his unrivalled power of dissimulation. Having on one occasion reported a great victory to Nunjeraj, that minister sent his commissary to bestow the usual pensions for wounds, when 700 men were exhibited to him, wrapped in bandages which had been steeped in turmeric, whereas only 67 had been wounded. By similar acts of deceit, and by the repetition of false musters, he was enabled to obtain large supplies of money, and to increase his force to 7,000. At the same time, he procured skilled artizans from the French settlements on the coast, and established an arsenal and a laboratory, and brought his artillery to a high degree of perfection.

became mutinous for their arrears. Hyder hastened to the capital, and engaged to satisfy their claims, on receiving the assignment of fresh jaygeers. By this politic act he increased his resources, and at the same time obtained an influence over the troops, and all classes began to regard him as the guardian of order. Soon after, he persuaded the minister to expel the Mahratta officers from the districts which had been pledged to the Peshwa, who immediately entered the country with a large force. Hyder was appointed to the command of the Mysore army, and harassed the Mahrattas in their own style of warfare, with so much effect that they offered to relinquish the mortgaged territory for an immediate payment. Hyder raised the money from the bankers of the city on his own personal security, and the districts were transferred to him. Then came fresh mutinies, and the raja and the minister were besieged in their palaces. Hyder was at hand to satisfy the troops and received fresh assignments, till he found himself in possession of half the domains of the state.

Hyder ass'ts  
Lally 1760

Lally was at this time besieged by Coote in Pondicherry, and solicited the aid of Hyder, who engaged to furnish him with 8,000 horse and foot and a due proportion of artillery, on being put in possession of the important fortress of Thugur. His relative and general, Mukdoom Ali, on his way to Pondicherry with the troops, fell in with a small English detachment, and defeated it. Hyder was so elated with this success, that he immediately ordered the strength of his contingent to be doubled. If this increased force had reached the French settlement while it was besieged, the war between the English and the French might have exhibited a very different result. But Hyder was suddenly obliged to recall the whole force for the protection of his own interests. His usurpation of authority had created great indignation at the court, and the queen mother and the raja, in conjunction with his bosom friend, Khundeh Rao, determined to take advantage of the absence of these troops

to crush his rising power. He was encamped under the fort of Seringapatam with only 1,600 men, when the guns were unexpectedly opened on him, and he was obliged to fly for his life. He retreated to Bangalore, and recalled his troops from Pondicherry, but was overtaken and signally defeated by Khundeh Rao.

Hyder re-  
covers his  
fortunes, and  
usurps the  
throne, &c.

Hyder's fortunes now appeared desperate, but they were restored by his matchless tact and hypocrisy. Unarmed and alone, he suddenly presented himself before the minister, Nunjeraj, acknowledged his ingratitude with an appearance of the deepest penitence, and entreated that he might be forgiven, and allowed to serve under him in any capacity, however mean. Nunjeraj was so simple as to give faith to these professions and condone his offence, and Hyder was thus enabled to assemble an army, but Khundeh Rao still followed him with such vigour that his escape appeared impossible. In this emergency, he contrived to throw in the way of his pursuer letters addressed to his officers, with the seal of Nunjeraj, in which allusion was made to certain treacherous proposals. Khundeh Rao, considering himself betrayed by his own officers, quitted his army, and fled with precipitation to Seringapatam. Hyder was now enabled to assemble a powerful army, with which he ascended the ghauts, and on his arrival at the capital in May, sent a message to the raja stating, "that large sums were due to him from the state, which must be liquidated after which, if the raja thought fit to continue his services, it was well, otherwise he would depart and seek his fortune elsewhere." Such a message, backed by an overwhelming force, could not be misunderstood. The raja yielded to necessity, and in June, 1761, relinquished the government to Hyder Ali on receiving an assignment of lands of the annual value of three lacs of rupees for himself, and one lac for Nunjeraj.

Augmentation  
of Hyder's  
power &c.

Hyder, now master of the kingdom of Mysore, directed all his coergies to its aggrandisement,

and in the course of two years extended his frontier to the banks of the Kistna. In 1763, he invaded the territory of Bednore, on the summit of the ghauts, which overlooked the maritime province of Canara. The capital was eight miles in circumference, and the country had not been exposed to the desolation of war. The queen set fire to her palace, and fled with a large portion of the inhabitants into the woods, and Bednore submitted without a struggle. It is said to have been the most wealthy city in the Deccan, and the plunder which Hyder acquired has been estimated at twelve crores of rupees. This sum is a manifest exaggeration, but he himself always attributed his subsequent prosperity to the treasure he acquired in this city. He had previously changed his name from Hyder Nask to Hyder Ali Khan Bahadoor, and he now introduced greater etiquette and splendour into the arrangements of his court, and moreover took advantage of the access he had obtained to the sea coast, to commence the construction of a navy.

Accession of  
Madhoo Rao,  
Peshwa, Sept.,  
1761

To turn now to the progress of affairs among the Mahrattas. On the death of Balajee Rao, after the fatal defeat at Paniput, his son, Madhoo Rao, a youth of eighteen, proceeded to Satara, in company with his uncle, Raghonath Rao, known in British annals as Paghoba, and was invested with the office of Peshwa by the descendant of Sevajee, who was still held in confinement by his cruel grandmother, Tara-bye. Nizam Ali the dewan or prime minister of his brother Salabut Jung, who had usurped the whole power of the Hyderabad kingdom resolved to take advantage of the crippled state of the Mahrattas, and the confusion of a new reign, to recover the district which the deceased Peshwa had wrested from him in the preceding year. He marched to Poona with a large army, but, on arriving within fourteen miles of it, was induced to relax his demands, and accept lands yielding twenty seven lacs of rupees a year. Six months after, he placed his brother under restraint, and not long after, when intelligence



arrived that he had been recognised soobadar of the Deccan, by the peace of Paris, caused him to be put to death. Before the cession of the districts was completed, the restless Raghoba assembled his troops to oppose Nizam Ali, who immediately formed an alliance with Bhonslay, the raja of Berar, and marched again to Poona which, on this occasion, he plundered and burnt. Raghoba retaliated on him by marching to Hyderabad, and laying it under contributions. The two armies met on the banks of the Godavary. The faithless

Nizam Ali defeated by Raghoba, &c.

Bhonslay was induced by the promise of lands, valued at thirty two lacs of rupees a year, to desert Nizam Ali, and join Raghoba, and the

result of this treachery was the entire defeat of the Nizam with immense slaughter. The raja of Berar, however, was not long permitted to retain the fruits of his perfidy. He had incensed the Peshwa by joining Nizam Ali, and Nizam Ali by deserting to the Mahrattas on the eve of the battle, and in 1760, the united armies of these princes invaded Berar, and constrained him to restore four-fifths of the territory he had gained by his treachery.

Mahratta attack and defeat of Hyder 1763.

Mysore had hitherto been considered by the Mahrattas a submissive province, paying *chout*,

and affording a field for plunder when no other expedition happened to be on hand. The sudden rise and rapid encroachment of a new power roused the indignation of the Peshwa and, having disposed of Nizam Ali, he determined to chastise the audacity of Hyder, who had already increased his force to 20 000 horse and 40 000 foot, one half of which consisted of well disciplined infantry battalions. It was his first regular encounter with the Mahrattas, and he was completely foiled in all his movements. At the close of the monsoon, the Mahrattas again took the field, and forced Hyder to a general action in which he was again routed, with the loss of 10,000 men. The Mahratta horse spread over the country and plundered it without mercy, and Hyder considered himself fortunate in obtaining peace by the restora-

tion of the greater portion of the districts he had usurped, and the payment of thirty-two lacs of rupees. These disasters shook his power in the other provinces he had recently conquered, and it required a full year to restore his authority. Early in 1766, his ambition led him to invade the maritime province of Malabar. The Nairs, or military chieftains, anxious to maintain their hereditary renown, and to preserve their independence, offered a noble resistance, but their chivalrous valour could not avert their fate, and the whole province was reduced to subjection. In his progress along the coast, Hyder reached the town of Calicut, memorable as the place where the Europeans first set foot on the soil of India. The district had never been invaded by the Mahomedan arms, and the Hindoo chief still bore the title of Zamorin, as in the days of Albuquerque. He was now into submission by the overwhelming force of Hyder, but seeing his minister subjected to torture, he set fire to his palace, and voluntarily perished in the flames to avoid a similar fate.

and subjected them eventually to the greatest ignominy. The Mahrattas determined to forestal the Nizam, and without waiting for his co operation, crossed the Kistna in January, 1767, and before the end of March had plundered the northern districts to the extent of seventeen lacs of rupees. Hyder discreetly bought them off by a payment of thirty lacs more. Madhoo Rao, the Peshwa, on his return from this successful expedition in May, met the Nizam's army at Colar, and was requested to share the plunder with it, but he treated the request with derision, and returned to his capital, leaving him and his English ally to settle with Hyder as they best could.

Nizam deserts  
the English and  
joins Hyder  
167

Colonel Smith who commanded the contingent of British troops, found, on joining the Nizam's camp, that this perfidious prince, had already entered into negotiations with Hyder, and the

Colonel advised the Presidency to be prepared for the invasion of the Carnatic by their ally, as well as by their enemy. To remove suspicion the Nizam made the strongest protestations of inviolable good faith, but Colonel Smith, on entering the Mysore territory in May, 1767, perceived such unequivocal tokens of collusion, that he retired with the bulk of his force towards his own frontier, leaving only three battalions and some field pieces with the Nizam, at his special request. While this negotiation was in progress, the Nizam was intriguing with Nunjeraj, formerly minister of the old raj of Mysore, for the subversion of Hyder's power. Hyder, who had discovered the plot, invited Nunjeraj to Serenagapatam, after taking a solemn oath on the Koran to do him no harm, and, on his arrival, showed him that the oath had been taken on a book of blank leaves, and then stripped him of all his property, and consigned him to perpetual imprisonment. The bargain being now completed, the Nizam engaged to join in an attack on the English, on receiving an immediate payment of twenty lacs of rupees, and a promise of six lacs of tribute. But this scene of treachery was relieved by one act of gene-

rosity, the English contingent of three battalions was allowed to leave the Nizam's camp without being attacked. The combined army of Hyder and the Nizam which now advanced against the English, numbered 42,000 cavalry, 28,000 infantry, and 100 guns, while Colonel Smith was only able to muster 1,030 sabres, and 5,800 bayonets, with 16 guns.

The first encounter with the English troops Battle of Changan, 2d Sept., 1767 took place on the 23d of August, when a small detachment was surprised and defeated. The honour of the British flag was, however, retrieved at Changan, where Colonel Smith totally routed the allied force, but as the Madras Council had entrusted the charge of the commissariat to their Nabob, Mahomed Ali, and he had, as usual, disappointed them, Colonel Smith found his army straitened for provisions, and was obliged to fall back on Trinomalee, where, after various manœuvres, he was able to offer battle to the allies. The engagement lasted two days, and ended in their total defeat, with the loss of 4,000 men and 64

duct from the commencement of your negotiations for the sircars, without the strongest disapprobation, and when we see the opulent fortunes acquired by our servants since that period, it gives but too much weight to the public opinion, that this rage for negotiations, treaties, and alliances has private advantage for its object, more than the public good."

Hyder on the western coast, 1768      Hyder's presence was required on the western coast, to make head against a formidable expedition fitted out from Bombay against his ports and his naval power. Mangalore and Onore were captured, and the Mysore fleet destroyed, but in the month of May Hyder descended the ghaats with an imposing force, and completely turned the scale. The British commander at Mangalore, after a wretched defence, re-embarked his troops, 1,500 in number, abandoning, not only all his stores, but 260 of his wounded soldiers, among whom were 80 Europeans. Hyder, after wreaking his vengeance on the districts which had manifested a spirit of rebellion during the brief ascendancy of the English power on the coast, returned, after the lapse of seven months, to prosecute the war in the eastern districts. But the great opportunity which his long absence afforded to the British army in the Carnatic had been completely sacrificed by the imbecility of the Madras authorities. As if the kingdom of Mysore were already in their possession, they had given it away to their Nabob, Mahomed Ali, and he accompanied the army to take charge of the districts as they were occupied. The provision of the commissariat, on which the movements of the army entirely depended, was, by a fatal error, committed to him, and Colonel Smith, the commandant was controlled and hampered by the deputation of two members of Council to regulate its movements. In spite, however, of these embarrassments, his exertions were attended with such success, that nearly one half the dominions of Hyder, together with eight of his principal forts, and the most important mountain passes fell into his hands. Hyder, after a calm consideration of the progress and prospects of the campaign,

deemed it the part of prudence in the month of September, to make overtures to Colonel Smith offering to cede the Baramahal to the Company, and to pay down ten lacs of rupees. But the President and Council, inflated with recent success, made the most extravagant demands and Hyder broke off the negotiation, and prepared for a mortal conflict.

The tide turns  
against the En-  
glish, 1 63. The tide of success now turned against the English. Colonel Smith was constrained by the

skilful manœuvres of Hyder to raise the siege of Bangalore, and it was with great difficulty that he was able to maintain his ground. The "field deputies" and the Nabob had remained at Colar, where a body of troops, equal to a division, was idly detained for their protection. They had managed between them to ruin the prospects of the campaign, the deputies, by their mischievous interference, the Nabob by his neglect in regard to the supply of provisions. On the appearance of a detachment sent by Hyder to terrify them, they hastened back to Madras, accompanied by Colonel Smith, who had been invited to return to the Presidency to make room for a more favourite commander Colonel Wood. Thus ended all the bright visions of conquest in which the Madras Council had been indulging during the year and they were now obliged to limit their efforts to the defence of the Company's territories. On the 6th of December Hyder descended into the Baramahal and in the course of six weeks recovered all the districts which he had lost. It was now the turn of the Council to solicit an accommodation with him but the terms they proposed did not suit him and, after two months of fruitless negotiations, he resumed his ravages marking his progress by the flames of villages and the flight of the wretched inhabitants. Colonel Smith was placed at the head of the troops and, by his rapid and skilful movements, so effectually baffled the plans of Hyder that he determined to attempt, by one bold stroke to bring the war to a termination. Sending all his guns, heavy baggage, and infantry back to Mysore by the pass of Ahtoor,

he placed himself at the head of 6,000 chosen horse, unencumbered by a single gun, and marched a hundred and thirty miles in three days and a half. Early on the morning of the 29th of March, his advanced guard appeared at St Thomé, five miles from Madras, and a messenger soon after announced to the bewildered Council that he had come to conduct the negotiations in person. Colonel Smith had been rapidly following in his track, and would shortly have reached Madras. Hyder therefore demanded that an order should be immediately sent requiring him to halt, wherever he might be, on the arrival of the communication, which was despatched by one of his own dromedaries, and the Colonel, to his great chagrin, was obliged to remain inactive during this disgraceful negotiation. Hyder likewise required that Mr. Dupre, who had recently arrived at Madras, to succeed to the office of President, should be sent to his camp to adjust the conditions of peace. On the 4th of April a treaty was concluded on the very moderate terms of a mutual restitution of conquests. But it was at the same time stipulated that "in case either of the contracting parties should be attacked, they should from their respective countries mutually assist each other to drive the enemy out." Thus ended this ill-managed and unfortunate war by a treaty dictated by Hyder, under the walls of Madras.

demanded a crore of rupees, and the negotiation was broken off. In the month of May, 1771, he was constrained by the state of his health, to relinquish the command of the Mahratta army, which devolved on Trimbuck mama Hyder, who dreaded the abilities of the Peshwa, but held the new commander in contempt, advanced with 30,000 men and forty guns, to the pass of Milgota, where he found himself entrapped into a false position. After sustaining an incessant cannonade for eight days, he was constrained, on the 5th of March, to break up his encampment, and commence his retreat to Seringapatam, a distance of about twenty-two miles. The army commenced its stealthy march by night, but it was revealed to the Mahrattas by accident or treachery, and they instantly made a vigorous assault on the retiring force. Hyder, who had been drinking to excess and had not been able to relieve the effects by his usual period of sleep, was in a state of helpless inebriety. Tippoo was nowhere to be found, and when he presented himself to his father, the next morning, was overwhelmed with abuse, and beaten without mercy, on which he threw his turban on the ground, and swore by the prophet that he would not draw sword any more that day. The rout was complete, and the carnage prodigious, and the army was saved from extermination only by the avidity of the Mahrattas for plunder. Hyder, on recovering his senses in the morning, mounted a swift horse, and did not draw rein till he reached his capital. The Mahrattas had close siege to it, but as they managed it with more than usual absurdity, Hyder had leisure to collect his scattered forces. During these troubles, he repeatedly importuned the President of Madras for that succour which the English government was bound, by the recent treaty, to afford him. He offered to pay twenty lacs of rupees for a brigade of troops, and to cede the Barvaahal, Salem, and Altoor, and threatened to throw himself into the arms of the French if the assistance was withheld. The President considered it of vital importance to the honour and interests of



the Company to support Hyder. But he was paralysed by the presence and the interference of Sir John Lindsay, whom the ministry of the day had, by an act of incredible folly, sent out as the King's representative to the court of Mahomed Ali, and that prince was thus relieved from the salutary control of the Madras government. It was two years before this mischievous mission was recalled, during which time the Nabob was enabled to indulge his extravagant propensities with perfect impunity, to the great delight and benefit of his European creditors. He insisted on an alliance with the Mahrattas, which was supported by Sir John Lindsay, and the Madras Council, not daring to act in opposition to one who was clothed with the royal authority, were constrained to abandon Hyder to his fate. The desolation of his districts, and the exhaustion of his resources, at length compelled him to sue for peace to the Mahrattas, which was not granted without the immediate payment of thirty six lacs of rupees, besides the stipulation of fourteen lacs of rupees of annual tribute, and the cession of territory, which reduced the Kingdom of Mysore to narrower limits than it comprised at the beginning of the century. Nothing exhibits the incapacity of the Madras authorities during the war with Hyder so conspicuously as the contrast between the disgrace which he inflicted on them and the humiliation he sustained from the Mahrattas two years later. The breach of faith to which he attributed his misfortunes he never forgot or forgave, and it resulted in establishing Mahratta garrisons on the northern frontier of the Carnatic.

established, was not of his family, but was placed at the head of the army by Aylah bye, the process who, for thirty years, managed the state with consummate ability. The army, consisting of 300 000 horse and foot, and commanded by Vi-ajec, the Peshwa's general, burst like a flood on Rajpootana, and levied contributions to the extent of ten lacs of rupees. The Jants, the next victims, were constrained to make a composition for sixty five lacs, of which ten were paid down at once. During these transactions, the Mahratta chiefs invited the emperor to return to Delhi under their protection. That prince had continued to reside at Allahabad after the arrangement concluded by Clive in 1763, in the tranquil enjoyment of the stipend allotted to him. The government of Delhi and of the districts still attached to the crown, were administered for seven years with extraordinary talent and success, by Nojeeb ood dowlah, the Rohilla chief, whom Mr Verelst, the governor of Bengal, justly designated "a great and good man," and on his death in October, 1770, by his son Zabita Khan. The emperor was naturally desirous of proceeding to Delhi and mounting the throne of his ancestors. The Mahrattas were equally desirous of becoming the instrument of seating him on it, and turning the influence of his name to account. The Council in Calcutta, however, strongly dissuaded him from this measure, feeling confident that it would involve the affairs of Hindostan in confusion, and eventually prove detrimental to his own interests. But the emperor turned a deaf ear to their remonstrances and threw himself on the protection of the Mahrattas, by whom he was conducted to Delhi and installed on the 25th of December, 1771.

Early in 1772 they entered Rohilkund reduced the Doonab, and laid waste the whole province. The family of Zabita Khan was made prisoners, and the great wealth accumulated by him and his father they appropriated to their own use. The Rohilla chiefs in their extremity, were driven to solicit the aid of the Vizier, though they were fully aware that the

their country, and make common cause in the expedition. The Vizier, in an agony of terror, offered, when the Mahrattas retired, to restore the bond Hafiz had given him. But the Rohilla chief needed no such inducement to refrain from an alliance with those whom he regarded as "the savage and infidel Mahrattas," and resolved to co-operate with the Vizier in opposing them. That helpless prince, at the same time, implored the aid of the Council in Calcutta, who directed a brigade of troops to advance for the protection of the country. Several detachments of Mahratta horse laid waste a portion of Rohilcund; but the main body was held in check by the combined forces of the Rohillas, the Vizier, and Sir Richard Barker. Meanwhile, the young Peshwa, having planned an expedition to the south, required the presence of the troops employed in Hindostan, and the Mahratta general suddenly broke up his encampment in the month of May, and retired across the Nerbudda, laden with the booty of three campaigns. But, even before the disappearance of the Mahrattas, and while the Rohilla chiefs were cordially engaged in supporting the cause of the Vizier, that prince was plotting their expulsion from Rohilcund, and the appropriation of their estates. The sequel of these transactions, belongs to the history of Hastings's administration, and we turn therefore to the progress of Indian affairs in England.

The strange anomaly of the Company's government. The British Government in India at this period was a strange and unprecedented anomaly. The agents of a London trading Company had in a few years acquired the sovereignty of provinces twice the size of England, and were employed in ruling a population twice as numerous as the subjects of their own king. The directors of a counting house in London were making peace and war, setting up thrones and pulling them down, and disposing of princely revenues. Their servants abroad with salaries of only three or four hundred pounds a year, were moreover, coming home, year after year, with colossal fortunes, made in four or five years, and setting up

thus became a scene of jobbery and corruption, such as had never, perhaps, been seen in England before, and was scarcely paralleled by the depravity which prevailed among their servants abroad. The great marvel is, how the British power in India survived the crime and confusion which with some brilliant exceptions, characterised the period of fifteen years, between the battle of Plussy, and the new organisation of 1773.

In these circumstances there was a general demand for Parliamentary enquiry. It was seventy years since the House of Commons had interfered in the affairs of the Company, it was then only a commercial interest; it was now a political power. The first movement of the Minister was to claim for the Crown the sovereignty of the territories acquired by its subjects in India. The Company resisted the demand, and maintained that the possessions which had been obtained by their arms belonged exclusively to them. The dispute was for a time compromised by conceding the territorial revenues to them for five years, on the payment of forty lacs a year to the nation. It was likewise proposed to remedy the disorders in India by sending out three of the most eminent of the retired servants of the Company with unlimited powers, but the vessel in which they embarked foundered at sea.

Meanwhile, the financial difficulties of the Company brought on a crisis. All the golden dreams which the acquisition of the three soobahs had created, were rudely dissipated. Fraudulent bills in India for contracts, cantonments and fortifications, and extravagant charges for travelling, diet, and parade, had exhausted the surplus revenue, and created a deficit. With a revenue of two millions and a half a year, there was a debt of a million and a quarter in London, and of more than a million in Calcutta. The Court of Proprietors as if they were anxious to compete with the profligacy of their servants in India, chose this period of impending bankruptcy, to vote themselves a dividend of twelve and a half per cent. The Court of

Parliamentary  
interference,  
1773

Financial and  
commercial, and the  
Legislative Act,  
1773

Directors borrowed repeatedly of the Bank of England, until the Bank would lend no more. They then applied to the minister, Lord North, for a loan of a million from the public, to prevent closing the doors of the India House, and he coolly referred them to Parliament, which was convened earlier than usual, to take their affairs into consideration. A Select Committee was appointed in 1772 to collect evidence, when the whole system of violence and iniquity, by which the British name had been tarnished in India, and individuals enriched, was laid bare to the nation. Parliament determined at once to take the regulation of Indian affairs into its own hands. The Directors protested against this violation of their chartered rights, as they termed the intervention of Parliament, but they had incurred universal odium and contempt, and the Minister was enabled to carry his measure with a high hand. The immediate necessities of the Company were relieved by the loan of a million sterling from the exchequer. The vicious constitution of the India House was corrected, the qualification for a single vote was raised from £500 to £1,000, and twelve hundred proprietors were thus disfranchised at one stroke, no individual was to enjoy more than four votes, whatever amount of stock he might hold, and six Directors only were to go out annually, which extended the tenure of office to four years. The Governor of Bengal was appointed Governor General, on a salary of £25,000 a year, with four counsellors at £10,000, and they were in the first instance nominated by Parliament. At the same time a Crown Court was established in Calcutta, to administer English law on the model of the Courts in Westminster, with a Chief Justice at £8,000, and three Puisne Judges, at £6,000 a year. The Act which embodied these provisions is known as the Regulating Act. Its enactments regarding the home government were highly judicious and beneficial, but those which referred to the government in India concocted without knowledge or experience, only seemed to increase the complication of affairs, and shook the power of Britain in the East to its foundation.

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## CHAPTER XIII.

HASTINGS'S ADMINISTRATION AND THE MAHRATTA WAR,  
1772—1782

WARREN HASTINGS was appointed the first Governor General under the new Act,—a man endowed by nature with the greatest talent for government, and whose renown has not been eclipsed by the most illustrious of his successors. He landed in Calcutta in January, 1760, at the age of eighteen, and was employed for six years in the duties of appraising silk and muslins, and copying invoices. The political exigencies which arose out of the battle of Plassy suddenly developed his administrative abilities, which Clive was the first to discover and foster. He was selected to represent the Company at the Moorsshedabad durbur, which at the time, was one of the most arduous and delicate posts in the service. Three years after, he came by rotation to the Council board in Calcutta, and strenuously supported Mr Vansittart in his opposition to those profligate measures which issued in the war with Meer Cassim. In the most venal period of the Bengal administration he was distinguished by high principle and unsullied probity, and returned to England on furlough in graceful poverty, while his colleagues were retiring from the service with ambitious fortunes. By this step he forfeited his position in the service, according to the rules then in force, and he long solicited to be restored to it, but without success. By a happy accident, however, he was at length required to give evidence before a committee of the House of Commons when the clearness of his statements, and the breadth of his views, excited the admiration both of the Court of Directors and the Ministry, and he was at once appointed second in Council at Madras.

State of Bengal  
1763-1772

The double government established by Clive after the acquisition of the Dewanny, though re-

garded at first as a master piece of policy, soon proved to be the curse of Bengal. It combined all the vices of a native government with all the confusion and mischief inseparable from foreign interference. The management of the revenue, which included the entire administration, was in the hands of native agents, who were subject to the supervision of the British resident at Moorshedabad, but his control was merely nominal. There was no European functionary in Bengal conversant with revenue details, and the zemindars were at liberty to make their own terms with the ryots on the one hand, and with the treasury on the other, in every case it was the interests of the state which suffered. Individuals grew rich, while the government was sinking in debt. To check these abuses, supervisors or collectors were appointed in 1763 to look after the revenue, but they were both ignorant and rapacious, and became mere tools in the hands of their banians, or native factors. The public money they collected was employed, for the most part, in supporting the monopolies which they and their native banians had established in the traffic of the district, and the value of their appointments consequently ranged from one to three lacs of rupees a year. The Court of Directors determined, therefore, "to stand forth as Duan, and to take on themselves the entire care and management of the revenues through the agency of their own servants." This decision involved a complete revolution in the whole system of administration, civil, criminal, and fiscal, among twenty five millions of people, and a more momentous change than any which had taken place since the days of Akbar and Toder Mull. Hastings was considered the only man in the Company's service capable of inaugurating this new policy, and he was accordingly elevated to the chair in Bengal, and took charge of the government on the 13th April, 1772.

Warren Hastings  
President  
of Bengal, 1772.  
Great changes

Upon this arduous task he entered with great zeal and energy. It was resolved to farm out the lands for five years, and the President and four

members of the Council proceeded through the districts to conduct the settlements. The offers made by the zemindars were, however, deemed unsatisfactory, and it was determined to put the lands up to competition, after abolishing some of the most oppressive of the imposts with which the land had latterly been saddled. Where the old zemindars were displaced by higher bidders, an allowance was granted for their support out of the rents. The Khalsa, or exchequer, was removed from Moorshedabad to Calcutta, to which the entire administration of the country, in every branch, was transferred, and which became, from this date, the capital of Bengal. The charge of civil and criminal justice in each district was entrusted to European officers, and two courts of appeal were established at the seat of government. Without the aid of an English lawyer, Hastings drew up a short and simple code of regulations for the new courts, which exhibited in a remarkable degree the versatility of his talents. All these organic changes in the system of government were completed in six months.

The first Rohilla war 17 2. The Mahrattas had no sooner crossed the Ganges on their return home, than the Vizier began to importune Hastings to assist him in seizing the province of Rohilkhand, and offered a donation of forty lacs of rupees, and the payment of two lacs a month for the services of the English force. The Court of Directors, overwhelmed with debt and disgrace, were imploring the Council in Calcutta for remittances, and urging a reduction of the military expenditure, which was devouring the resources of the country. The treasury in Calcutta was empty, but the offer of the Vizier seemed to be exactly adapted to meet the exigency. Mr Hastings was assured that the Rohillas had offered to pay the Vizier the sum of forty lacs of rupees if he would deliver them from the Mahrattas; that they had been saved from destruction by the presence of the Vizier's troops and those of his English ally, and, that now the danger was passed, they refused to pay anything. With this garbled



statement of the case, Hastings satisfied his conscience, and concluded that their ingratitude deserved punishment, and that, on the plan suggested by the Vizier, an act of just retribution might be made the means of replenishing the Company's coffers. The Vizier wanted territory, and Hastings wanted money. "Such," he wrote, "was my idea of the Company's distress in England and India, that I shou'd have been glad of any occasion of employing these forces, which saves so much of their pay and expenses." Hastings accordingly proceeded to Benares in August, 1773, and concluded a treaty with the Vizier on the terms proposed by him. The districts of Corah and Allahabad were considered to have lapsed to the Company, when the emperor, to whom Clive had given them, was compelled to make them over to the Mahrattas. The defence of these districts—such was the extravagance and embezzlement in the military department—had cost the treasury two crores of rupees in five years, and Hastings wisely determined to "free the Company from this intolerable burden" and transferred them to the Vizier who offered an additional payment of fifty lacs of rupees for them. The subsidy of twenty six lacs of rupees a year from the revenues of the three soobahs, which had been settled on the emperor, was suspended during the great famine which depopulated and pauperised Bengal, and, as he had now ceased to be a free agent, it was finally abolished.

Destruction of  
the Rohil as  
23rd April,  
1774.

The Vizier having secured the aid of an English force demanded of Hafiz Ruhmut the payment of the balance of his bond, thirty five lacs of rupees.

Hafiz offered to make good whatever sum the Vizier had actually paid the Mahrattas for their forbearance, but as he knew that he had never paid them anything the offer was treated with contempt. Hafiz, seeing the storm ready to burst upon his head, proposed a compromise, but the Vizier raised his demand to two hundred lacs of rupees, and the Rohillas adopted the resolution of defending their independence to the last extremity. Colonel Champion the

British commander, advanced into Rohilcund, accompanied by the Vizier's army, and the campaign was decided in a single engagement, on the 23rd of April, 1774. Hafiz brought 40,000 Rohillas into action, and exhibited a degree of military skill and courage, which excited the admiration of his European opponents. But nothing could withstand the steady charge of British bayonets, and after two hours of severe conflict, and the slaughter of more than 2 000 Rohillas—among whom was the brave Hafiz and his son—they were obliged to fly. The dastardly Vizier remained with his troops beyond the reach of fire, till the Rohillas were defeated, when he let them loose to plunder the camp. "We have the honour of the day," exclaimed the indignant Champion, "and these handitti the profit."

Reflections on  
this transaction.

This transaction is one of the few stains on the bright and honourable career of Hastings. It has been urged to extenuation of it that the Rohillas were mere usurpers, with no right to the province but that of the sword. But so were nine tenths of the princes of India at the time. The usurpation of Holkar, and Scindia, and Hyder Ali, and even of the Peshwa, and the Nizam, was quite as modern as that of the Rohillas, and the Nabob vizier himself was only the grandson of the Khorassan merchant, who had alienated Oude from the crown of Delhi. That the Rohillas formed a powerful confederacy on the borders of Oude, which in the unsettled state of India, might have joined the Mahrattas and endangered the safety of a province which the Company was bound, no less by policy than by treaty to defend, cannot be controverted. The extinction of this dangerous power was a wise and politic measure so far as anything that is intrinsically unjust can be wise and politic. Such transactions were, moreover, of constant occurrence in India: no native prince saw anything unusual or unjust in it, and even the Rohillas themselves considered it only as one of the chances of war to which they, in common with all states, were constantly liable. But it was inconsistent with that higher standard of morals by which Hastings's conduct was judged

in England, and it has been invariably condemned, even by those who admire his genius. The conduct of the Vizier towards the conquered, in spite of Hastings's remonstrances and threats, was infamous, but the assertion that 500,000 husbandmen were driven across the Ganges, and that the country was reduced to a bare and uninhabitable waste, was an Oriental exaggeration. The "extermination," which was so loudly denounced by the enemies of Hastings, had reference only to the power of the Afghans, who did not exceed 20,000 in number. The Hindoo natives of the soil, numbering more than a million, experienced no other distress than that which follows every change of masters in India.

Arrival of the  
Judges and  
the Members of  
Council 1774

Hastings had succeeded in reorganising the administration, and extinguishing the Indian debt. He had overcome all the difficulties which beset his position on his arrival, but he was now called to encounter the more serious dangers which arose out of the provision made by the wisdom of Parliament for the better government of India. The judges of the Supreme Court and the new members of Council arrived from England, and landed at Chaudpal ghaut on the 19th of October, 1774, with the firm conviction that the government was a compound of tyranny and corruption, which it was their mission to purify. As the judges stepped on shore, one of them, observing the bare legs and feet of the natives who crowded to the sight, said to his colleague, "Our court, brother, certainly was not established before it was needed. I trust we shall not have been six months in the country before these victims of oppression are comfortably provided with shoes and stockings." Of the counsellors, Colonel Monson had served on the coast, General Clavering was the favourite of the King and the Ministry, and Mr Francis, the undoubted author of Junius's letters, had been an assistant in the War Office, and was distinguished for his talents and his malignity. They had all imbibed the most violent prejudices against Mr Hastings, and regarded him as a monster of iniquity, whom it was the part of virtue

leagues that all the engagements between the two states were cancelled by this event, except those which referred to the payment of arrears, and that whatever assistance he might receive from British troops must be based on a new arrangement. A treaty was accordingly concluded under the auspices of Mr Francis, and although he had condemned Hastings in no measured terms "for letting out British troops for hire to the Vizier," the services of the brigade were continued to him, but the amount of the hire was augmented by half a lac of rupees a month. The Vizier was likewise peremptorily commanded to cede to the Company, the zemindary of Benares, which yielded twenty-two lacs of rupees a year, and thus was the only addition made to the British territory during the long period of Hastings's administration.

peatedly denounced by the Court of Directors for his perfidy, and whose career had been marked by the most nefarious intrigues and treachery, offered to impeach Hastings, and was immediately taken into the alliance of the three counsellors. Under their auspices, he held his durbar in state in Calcutta, and issued his mandates to the zemindars throughout the country. At length, he came forward with a charge against Hastings of having received a bribe of three lacs and a half of rupees on the appointment of Muneo Begum, the widow of Meer Jaffier, and his own son, Raja Gooroodass, to the management of the Nabob's household at Moorshedabad, and likewise of having connived at the embezzlements of Mahomed Reza Khan for a douceur of ten lacs. Mr Francis and his colleagues proposed that Nundu koomar should be called before the Council board to substantiate the charge. Hastings, as might have been expected, opposed this proceeding with great indignation. "I know," he said, "what belongs to the dignity and character of the first member of this administration, and I will not sit at this board in the character of a criminal." It does not appear that on this or any other occasion, Hastings endeavoured to stifle enquiry, or objected to his opponents forming a committee of investigation, and reporting their proceedings to their masters at home, or referring the questions at issue to the arbitrament of the Supreme Court, but he felt that the government would be degraded in the eyes of the native community, if the dregs of society were introduced into the Council chamber to criminate the President at the instigation of Nundu koomar, and he dissolved the meeting and left the chamber. The majority immediately placed General Clavering in the chair, and called in Nundu koomar who dilated on the venality of Hastings, and moreover, produced a letter purporting to be written by Muneo begum herself, which admitted the payment of two lacs and a half of rupees to the Governor General, on which Mr Francis and his friends resolved with one consent, that Hastings had clandestinely and illegally received three lacs and forty

thousand rupees, and that measures should be taken to compel him to repay it into the public treasury. The signature to the letter was pronounced on the most impartial examination to be spurious, but the seal appeared to be genuine. The begum herself denied all knowledge of the letter, and the mystery of the seal was not discovered till after the death of Nundu koomar, when fac-similes of the seals of all the most eminent personages in Bengal were found in his cabinet.

Execution of  
Nundu koomar  
1773.

Hastings, in self-defence, now brought an action in the Supreme Court against Nundu

koomar and others for a conspiracy to induce one Kumal ood deen, a large revenue farmer, to criminate him. The judges admitted the charge and held Nundu koomar to bail, and Mr Francis and his two associates immediately paid him a complimentary visit at his own residence. Eight weeks after the commencement of this action, one Mohun Prasad, a native merchant renewed an action for forgery against Nundu koomar, which had been originally instituted in the local court, when Nundu koomar was arrested but released, through the intervention of Hastings. On the establishment of the Supreme Court, this suit, along with others, was transferred to its jurisdiction. The forgery was established on the clearest evidence, the jury found him guilty, and the judges ordered him to be hung. It was the first instance of the execution of a brahmin, since the English became lords of the country, and it created a profound sensation in the native community. \*Thousands of Hindoos surrounded the scaffold, unwilling to believe their own eyes, and when the deed was completed, rushed down to the sacred stream to wash out the pollution.

Perfect one on  
this transac-  
tion

This transaction was long considered the most atrocious crime of Hastings's administration. It was asserted in high quarters that Nundu koomar had been judicially murdered by him through the agency of Sir Elijah Impey, the chief justice. But time has dispelled

the clouds of prejudice. For this foul imputation there was no other ground than the coincidence of this trial, in point of time with the accusations brought by Nundokoomar against Hastings. There never was the slightest evidence that Hastings had ever prompted, or even encouraged the action. The capital sentence, however conformable to the barbarous laws of England at the time, was, on every consideration, most unjust. The offence was venial by the laws of the country, and the English code, which made it capital, was not introduced till several years after it had been committed. Mr Francis and his colleagues protested against the whole proceeding, but the judges indignantly refused to submit to any dictation in the exercise of their judicial functions. But after the sentence had been passed, it was still within the power of the majority of the Council who exercised the whole authority of the government, to suspend the execution of it, pending a reference to England, they did not, however, choose to interfere, and the odium of this transaction must be divided between them and the judges. Nundokoomar, who began life a poor man, left a fortune of a crore of rupees.

The Court of  
17 Directors con-  
demn Hastings,  
1775

Towards the close of 1775, the decision of the Court of Directors on the matters in dispute between Mr Francis and Hastings, was received in Calcutta. They condemned the measures of the Governor-General in strong language, but they neither ordered the restitution of Rohilkund to the Rohillas, nor the return of the forty lacs which had enriched their treasury, to the Vizier. But they recommended concord and unanimity to the Council, and the advice was received with a shout of derision by both parties. The adverse resolutions of the Directors were, however, overruled by the Proprietors, who held Hastings in the highest estimation, and the dissensions abroad, aggravated by the discord at home, brought the British interests in India to the verge of destruction, from which they were rescued only by the firmness and resolution of the Governor-General. In September, 1776, his authority in the government was re-

stored by the death of Colonel Monson, which gave him the casting vote in an equally balanced Council. But in the preceding year, worned by the opposition and insults of his opponents, he had informed his agent in England, Colonel Maderne, that it was his intention to resign his appointment, if he found that his measures were not approved of at home. But within two months of this communication, he recovered his spirits, revoked his resignation and at the same time informed the Minister, Lord North, that he would remain at his post till he was recalled by the same authority—that of Parliament,—which had placed him at the head of the government. But Colonel Maderne, finding the current against Hastings as strong in Leadenhall Street as it was in Downing Street, took upon himself to announce to the Court of Directors that he was authorised on certain conditions, to tender his patron's resignation. After several months of violent intrigue which it is not necessary to detail the Directors came to the resolution that Mr Hastings had positively resigned his office though his latest as well as his earliest letters were before them, and appointed Mr. Wheeler to the vacant seat in Council.

Clavering's  
violent proceed-  
ings and death,  
1777

When intelligence of this resolution reached Calcutta, General Clavering whom Lord North had encouraged in his opposition to Hastings by the Order of the Bath attempted to seize the

government, as being the senior member of Council, obtained possession of the Council Chamber and took the oaths as Governor General. He likewise demanded the keys of the Treasury and of the fort from Hastings, and wrote to the commandant to obey no orders but those which emanated from him. Hastings who did not admit the fact of his resignation had anticipated Sir John Clavering by securing the gates of Fort William and his messengers found them closed against him. The dispute was rapidly tending to a collision, which must have proved in the highest degree disastrous to the interests of the Company, when Hastings prudently



averted it by referring the question to the Judges of the Supreme Court. After a careful investigation of all the documents connected with this transaction, they came to the decision, that any assumption of authority by Sir John Clavering would be illegal, and the storm blew over. He did not survive the chagrin of this disappointment many months. Mr Wheeler, who had taken his seat in Council, though professing neutrality, generally sided with Francis, but the casting vote of the Governor General overruled all opposition. At the beginning of 1780, Mr Barwell was anxious to return to his native land with the colossal fortune he had accumulated, but he hesitated to embark and leave his friend Hastings in a minority. Mr Francis, unwilling to stand in the way of Mr Barwell's retirement came to an understanding with Hastings not to take advantage of it, and Mr Barwell embarked for England. But the discord was speedily renewed, the antagonists could not agree on the nature or extent of the neutrality. Hastings charged Francis with having duped him, and the dispute was settled, according to the barbarous custom of the times, by a hostile meeting, in which Mr Francis was wounded. At the close of the year he returned to England.

New settlement  
of the land  
revenue, 1777

The settlement of the land revenue, which had been made for five years, expired in 1777, when it was found that the country had been grievously rack-rented. Many of the zemindars, ambitious of retaining their position in the country, had made offers which they soon found themselves unable to support. The speculators, who had in many cases outbid and dislodged the old landholders, had no object but to enrich themselves by oppressive exactions, and throw up their engagements as soon as the ryots were exhausted. The government, new to their duties, had committed serious errors. To the usual imperfection of all new institutions, was in this instance added an entire ignorance of the quality and value of the lands and even of the language of those who held them. The whole system collapsed, the country was impoverished, and, what with remissions and

irrecoverable balances, the Company lost little short of two crores and a half of rupees in five years. Before the expiration of the old settlement, Hastings had wisely appointed a commission of inquiry to travel through the country and collect data for a new arrangement. The Court of Directors denounced the commission as a flagrant job, and charged Hastings with "the meanest and most corrupt motives in the selection of the members." They expressed their surprise that any such inquiry should be found necessary, after they had held the Dewanny for ten years. But they seemed to forget that their own time had been occupied in cabal and intrigue at home, to the neglect of the duties of administration, and that their ill paid revenue officers in India had been too closely occupied in making fortunes by private trade to have any leisure to attend to the interests of the state. By order of the Directors, the settlement was therefore made for one year only.

Death of  
Madhoo and  
Narayan Rao  
Peshwa,  
1772-73

To resume the thread of Mahratta affairs. The young Peshwa, Madhoo Rao, little inferior to any of his race in the cabinet or in the field, died of consumption, on the 18th of November, 1772.

At the period of his death, the nominal revenue of the Mahratta empire in Hindostan and in the Deccan, was ten crores of rupees, but the amount actually realized did not greatly exceed seven crores, of which the sum at the absolute disposal of the Peshwa was only three crores, the remainder of it belonged to the Guickwar, Bhonslay, Holkar, Sindia, and minor chieftains. The Peshwa's own army consisted of 50 000 horse, besides infantry and artillery, but the entire army he was able to assemble under the national standard was not less than 100,000 splendid cavalry, and a proportionate strength of foot and artillery, not including the Pindarrees, or hereditary freebooters of the country. It was a fortunate circumstance for India that this formidable force, animated by the instinct of plunder, and stimulated by the remembrance of past successes, was not under the control

old and astute statesman, Nana Furnavese, and the military commandant, and at once assumed all the functions of government. Raghoba, on the news of this revolution, hastened to meet his opponents, accompanied by Moran Rao, one of the greatest soldiers of the age, who had measured swords with Lawrence and Coote in the Carnatic, and on the 4th of March inflicted a signal defeat on the army of the Regency. This success replenished his military chest, and brought crowds to his standard, fortune seemed to declare in his favour, when, having conceived suspicions of the fidelity of his own generals, he threw away his chance of power by turning off to Boorhanpore, instead of marching at once on Poona, which its terrified inhabitants had begun to desert. The widow was delivered of a son on the 18th of April, 1774, who was installed as Peshwa when only ten days old, under the title of Madhoo Rao the Second.

*Proceedings of Raghoba, 1774.* After remaining a short time at Boorhanpore, Raghoba crossed the Nerbudda to Indore, where he was joined by Holkar and Sindia, who had returned from Rohilcund with about 30,000 horse. He also indulged the hope of receiving aid from the raja of Berar, and advanced to the banks of the Taptee, to secure the co-operation of the Guickwar army. In reference to the province of Guzerat, then under the rule of this family, it is to be observed that the authority of the Emperor was finally extinguished in it during the year 1753, when the capital, Ahmedabad, was captured by Damajee Guickwar, the Mahratta sardar. At the period of his death, in 1768, his son, Govind Rao, who happened to be at Poona, obtained his father's title and possessions on the payment of various sums, which eventually reached fifty lacs of rupees. In 1771, his brother, Puteh Sing, proceeded to the Peshwa's court, and succeeded in supplanting him, but Govind Rao's cause was espoused by Raghoba, on becoming Peshwa, and the province was distracted by these rival claims. Raghoba now advanced to claim the support of his *protégé*.

Raghobha's negotiations with the English, 1775

During the year 1772, the Court of Directors resolved to place a representative at the Poona durbar, in the hope of promoting their commercial interests, and, more especially, of obtaining possession of the port of Bassein, and the island of Salsette, which was separated from Bombay by a narrow channel, and comprised an area of about 150 square miles. With these acquisitions the Directors hoped to render Bombay the great emporium of the trade of the western coast with Persia, Arabia the Red Sea, and China. These possessions fell into the hands of the Portuguese in an early period of their career, but were conquered by the Mahrattas in 1739, by whom they were prized beyond their value, as having been wrested from a European power. Raghobha, on his arrival at the Tiptec, sent an envoy to Bombay to solicit the aid of a sufficient force to establish him in the government at Poona, and offered to defray all the expenses of the troops, as well as to make large grants of territory to the Company. The President and Council eagerly grasped at the proposal, and on the 6th of September, 1774, offered to assist him with 2,500 troops on condition of his advancing fifteen or twenty lacs of rupees, and engaging to cede Salsette and Bassein in perpetuity to the Company. But Raghobha, even in his extremity, refused to alienate Salsette from the Mahratta dominions. While these negotiations were pending, the Bombay authorities received information that a large armament was fitted out at Goa for the recovery of these possessions, and as it was felt that the Portuguese would be more dangerous neighbours than the Mahrattas, an expedition was sent to Salsette, and the island occupied before the end of the year.

Raghobha's treaty with Bombay 1775

Meanwhile, the Regency at Poona having succeeded by large offers in detaching Holkar and Sindia from the cause of Raghobha, moved against him with a body of 30 000 men and he narrowly escaped being captured by his perfidious allies and delivered up to his enemies. He retreated in all haste, leaving his bagum at

other, for the first time since the gentlemen of the factory at Surat had so gallantly repulsed Serjée in 1669. The brunt of the action fell on Colonel Keating's brigade, which was attacked by an army of ten times its number. The loss of life was severe but, though the English troops were for a time straggled, their final triumph was complete, and the Mahrattas retreated in haste and disorder to the Nerbudda. Colonel Keating pursued them with vigour, and they considered themselves fortunate in effecting their escape across the river, after they had thrown all their heavy guns into it. Futeh Sing now hastened to make his peace with the victors, and engaged to furnish Raghoba with twenty six lacs of rupees in two months, together with a large body of troops, and to secure to the Company a share of the Broach revenues to the extent of two lacs a year. The Mahratta navy, moreover, which consisted of six vessels, carrying from 26 to 46 guns, was completely crippled by the English commodore. The campaign had been prosperous by sea and land, the Company had obtained a territorial revenue of twenty-four lacs a year, the Mahrattas had been driven with disgrace across the Nerbudda, and so effectually damaged was their reputation, that the Nizam was emboldened to take advantage of their distress, and, under the threat of joining Raghoba, exacted a cession of lands valued at eleven lacs a year. But the brilliant prospects which this success opened up were ruined by the proceedings of the Calcutta triumvirate.

Treaty with  
Raghoba dis-  
allowed at Cal-  
cutta, 1775

The treaty with Raghoba, which appeared likely to involve a war with the Regency, was severely condemned by both parties in the Council in Calcutta, as "impolitic, dangerous, unauthorised, and unjust." When the war, however, had actually commenced, Hastings considered it almost impossible to withdraw from it with honour and safety, before the conclusion, and he advised that the Bombay Government should be vigorously supported in conducting it, and instructed to bring it to a termination as speedily as possible. But Mr Francis and his colleagues

resented the audacity of the Bombay Council in making war without their consent, ordered the treaty with Raghoba to be immediately annulled, and all the British troops to be withdrawn from the field. At the same time, they announced their intention to send an agent of their own to open an independent negotiation with the ministers at Poona. In vain did the Bombay Council remonstrate with them on the disgrace of violating a solemn treaty. Colonel Upton was sent to Poona to disavow their proceedings; their authority was paralysed, and their character wantonly disgraced in the eyes of the princes of India.

to the lands of the Godavery on a pension of three lacs of rupees a year. The British army was to quit the field. Salsette was to be retained by the Company if the Governor-General desired it, but all the other acquisitions were to be relinquished, the claim on the revenues of Broach was conceded, together with twelve lacs of rupees, towards the expenses of the war, "by way of favour." Considering that all the advantages of the campaign had been on the side of the English, the Bombay Presidency was fully justified in reproaching the treaty, as "highly injurious to the reputation and the interests of the Company." It was a flagrant breach of faith with Ragoba, and it served to impair the confidence of the native powers in the engagements of the British Government. It inspired the Poona Regency with an undue sense of their own importance, and rendered a second war inevitable. The Bombay Council did not conceal their anxiety to obstruct the treaty. They gave an asylum to Ragoba at Surat, and threw their field armies into Surat and Broach. The Poona ministers raved at this infraction of the treaty, and threatened to carry fire and sword into every part of the Company's dominions, but all their menaces were treated with contempt at Bombay.

Decision  
of the Court,  
of Directors  
1776

On the 20th of August, 1776, a despatch was received from the Court of Directors approving of the treaty concluded with Ragoba at Surat, and directing the other Presidencies to give him their support, and to return the territories which had been ceded by him. The Bombay Council, smarting under the degradation inflicted on them by the Supreme Government, lost no time in turning this favourable decision to account. To the great annoyance of the Poona Regency, they gave countenance to an impostor, who claimed the office of Pestwa, as the identical Sudaseeb Rao Bhao, who had disappeared at the battle of Paniput. They invited Ragoba to Bombay, and settled 10,000 rupees a month on him. The Mahratta cabinet remonstrated against this fresh violation of the treaty of Poorunder, but it was weakened by internal discords. Succanum Bappoo, the head

of the ministry, was jealous of the growing power of his younger associate, Nana Furnuverse, who had fled from the field of Paniput, and who united the highest political talent with a singular want of personal courage. His cousin, Maroba Furnuverse, had been the minister of the deceased Madhoo Rao, and took a prominent part in public affairs, but in the interests of Succram. Mahdjee Sindia was endeavouring to increase his own consequence by acting as umpire between the two factions. To increase the confusion at Poona, a French adventurer, of the name of St. Lubin, arrived there in March, 1777, and announced himself as the envoy of the King of France, who was on the eve of a war with the English. He was authorised, as he said, to offer the Mahrattas the support of 2,500 European troops, an abundant supply of stores and munitions of war, and officers to discipline 10,000 sepoys. He affected horror at the connection of the English with the assassin Raghola, and produced in the durbar, with a burst of grief, a picture of the barbarous murder of Narayun Rao, which had been painted under his direction at Paris. Nana Furnuverse affected to credit his mission, and, with the view of annoying the English government, afforded him every encouragement, and made over to him the harbour of Choul, only twenty-three miles from Bombay.

Revolution in  
favour of  
Raghola, 1778.

Meanwhile, a despatch was received at Bombay and Calcutta from the Court of Directors, regretting the sacrifices made by the treaty of Poorunder, and stating that, although they considered themselves bound in honour to adhere to it, yet, if there was any attempt on the part of the Poona Regency to evade its provisions, the Bombay Presidency was at liberty to renew the alliance with Raghola. The President and Council found little difficulty in discovering infractions of a treaty which those who had dictated it never intended to respect but as it suited their interests and prepared to espouse the cause of Raghola. Their movements were hastened by the course of events at the Mahratta capital. Moroba Furnuverse, assisted



by Holkar, resolved to support Raghoba, and Succaram Bappoo joined the confederacy, and despatched an envoy to Bombay to request the government to conduct Raghoba to Poona with a military escort. The proposal was eagerly accepted, and preparations were immediately made for the expedition. Hastings, who had now regained his ascendancy in the Council, gave the project his approbation, partly because it was countenanced by Succaram Bappoo, one of the parties to the treaty of Poorunder, but chiefly because Nana Furnuverse was giving encouragement to the French, whose influence in Indian politics he considered the greatest of calamities. In a letter dated the 23rd of March, 1778, he authorized the Bombay Government "to assist in tranquilizing the Mahratta state," and engaged to send a large force across the continent to resist the aggressions of the French, which, in his opinion, threatened the existence of the Company's possessions in the west of India.

Conter revolu-  
tion at Poona,  
6th July 1778

Nana Furnuverse was obliged to bend to the storm, and retire to Poorunder. Hurry Punt, the Mahratta general in chief, and one of his partizans, was, at the time, on his way to Morich, to join Sindia in resisting the encroachments of Hyder, to which reference will be made hereafter. They were hastily recalled from the south, and reached Poorunder on the 8th of July, where they united with the army of Holkar, who had been, in the meantime, detached from the opposite party by a bribe of nine lacs of rupees, and restored Nana Furnuverse again to power. Maroba and his colleagues were arrested on the 11th, and many of them put to death, but Succaram Bappoo, whose name it was deemed important to associate with the proceedings of the state, was simply placed under restraint. The party of Raghoba was thus extinguished at Poona. But the Bombay President and Council were not disposed to desert him. They addressed certain questions to the new ministry at Poona, the replies were considered a violation of the treaty of Poorunder, and it was resolved to put to use the

liberty granted to them in the despatch of the Court of Directors and in the letter of Hastings. Towards the end of August, he informed them that he was endeavouring to form an alliance with the Rajah of Berar, which would embrace the politics of Poona, and enjoined them to avoid any measure hostile to the Poona Pegency. But their passions were enlisted in the cause of Raghoba, which, in effect, they made their own, and without adequate preparation without a commander on whom they could depend, and without alliances, they determined to send a handful of men against the strength of the Mahratta empire. Nana Furnavese perceived the gathering storm, and prepared to meet it, he enlisted recruits in every direction, repaired and provisioned his forts and refitted his vessels.

Expedition to  
Poona, &c. &c.  
Nov 17 &c.

A new treaty was now made with Raghoba, which differed little from that of Surat. An army of 4 000 men, of whom 600 were Europeans, was equipped and entrusted to Colonel Egerton who had seen some service in Europe, but was little qualified for the duty assigned him. Desirous of the experience so dearly bought in the war with Hyder in 1768, 'field deputies,' under the name of civil commissioners, were sent with the army to control its movements, and to check peculation. Carnic, who had won some credit in the field in Bengal was appointed the senior commissioner, and he exhibited his fitness for such a trust by a squabble on the first day, with Colonel Egerton about the military honours to be paid him. The troop, encumbered with 10 000 bullocks besides other cattle, embarked at Panwell on the 25th of November, and, as if it had been designed to afford Nana and Sindia the most ample leisure for preparation moved at the rate of two miles a day. It was the 23rd of December before the army ascended the ghauts, when its disasters began by the loss of one of the most energetic, bold and judicious officers in its ranks, Captain Stewart whose name after the lapse of half a century, was still held in veneration by the inhabitants

of those valleys as Stewart Phakray, or Stewart the gallant

Disastrous progress of the army 179

On the 6th of January, Colonel Egerton resigned the command to Colonel Cockburn, but though he acted as civil commissioner, the responsibility of all subsequent movements rested with Carnac. On the 9th, the army reached Tullygram, and found it destroyed. A report was spread that the enemy intended also to burn Chunchore, and even the capital itself. Carnac was panic struck, and though within eighteen miles of Poona, with eighteen days provisions in the camp, determined in the first instance, to open a negotiation with the enemy, and then to retreat. Raghoba, who, with all his faults, was a gallant soldier, protested against this cowardice, so contrary to the British character, but the commissioners were so completely under the control of their own terrors, that they refused to wait even a single day for the result of their negotiations, threw their heavy guns into a pond, and begun their retreat that very night, hotly pursued by the enemy. The rear guard, upon which the enemy's assaults were chiefly directed, was commanded by a young and gallant officer of the name of Hartley, who had been in the service about fourteen years, and gained the entire confidence of the sepoys. He received every attack with the utmost steadiness and animation, and drove back the enemy at every point. The sepoys fought with perfect enthusiasm. Had the command of the expedition been entrusted to him, he would, doubtless, have planted the British standard on the battlements of Poona. but in this, as in many subsequent campaigns, while the army contained men of the most heroic mould, and of the highest talent, it was under the command of wretched drabblers.

The disgraceful convention of Wurgaum, Jan., 1778.

The British force encamped, on the night of the 12th, at Wurgaum, and was assailed in the morning by the guns brought up by the enemy during the darkness. The troops began to lose heart;

the commander was bewildered, and declared that even a retreat had ceased to be possible. Captain Hartley in vain pointed out the mode in which it might be effected with little loss. Overtures were made to Nana Furnavese who demanded the surrender of Raghoba, before he would listen to terms, and the commissioners would have complied with the demand if that prince had not saved them from this infamy by surrendering himself to Sindia. Nana, Furnavese, however, appeared to be impracticable, and the commissioners turned to Sindia to whom they sent Mr. Holmes with full powers to treat. This separate negotiation flattered his vanity and increased his importance, and a convention, known as that of Wurgaum, was concluded under his auspices, which rescued the British army from destruction by the sacrifice of all the acquisitions which had been made since 1773. The advance of the army under Colonel Goddard across the country was countermanded, and for the first time in the history of British India, two hostages were given for the performance of the treaty. The failure of this expedition, which was owing to the interference of the imbecile Carnac, was a severe blow to the interests of the Company, who lost no time in dismissing him, as well as Colonel Egerton and Cockburn, from the service. The Bombay Presidency lost its reputation and its strength, and its only hope of safety now rested on the arrival of the Bengal army.

Goddard's expedition, 1778. This expedition was despatched from the banks of the Jumna to Bombay through a thousand miles of unknown country, occupied by chiefs who were more likely to prove hostile than friendly. It was described by Mr. Dundas, the Indian minister, as "one of the frantic military exploits of Hastings," but he forgot that it was by a succession of such "frantic exploits" that British power and prestige had been established in India by a handful of foreigners. The force consisted of between 4 000 and 5 000 men, under the command of Colonel Leshe, a fair soldier, but unequal to such an enterprise. He crossed the Jumna in May,

1778, and was expected to reach the Nerbudda before it was swelled by the rains, but he wasted his time in discussions with petty chiefs, and in the course of five months had only advanced 120 miles. He was accordingly displaced, but died before the news of his supercession reached him and the command of the army was entrusted by Hastings to Colonel Goddard, one of the brightest names in the history of British India. Through his energy, the expedition advanced at a rapid pace, notwithstanding the opposition of many of the chieftains. The raja of Bhopal, however, treated Goddard with the greatest kindness and hospitality, and furnished his troops with ample supplies, though at the risk of bringing down on himself the vengeance of the Mahratta powers. This generous conduct in a season of difficulty has not been forgotten by the British government in the height of its prosperity. The house of Bhopal has been treated by successive Governors General with marked consideration, it has always been distinguished by its fidelity to the English crown, and the present Mahratta is the only female decorated with the most exalted Order of the Star of India.

War between  
France and  
England, th  
July 1778

During the progress of Colonel Goddard's expedition, intelligence was received in Calcutta of the declaration of war between France and England, and the difficulties of Hastings's position were greatly multiplied. The mission of St Lubin—who had not then been detected as a charlatan—and the countenance given to him by Nana Furnuvene, created the apprehension that the Mahrattas would be strengthened by a large French armament, and possibly under the command of the redoubted Bussy, who had retired to France with a magnificent fortune, and married the niece of the minister, but was thirsting for service in the country where his exploits were still held in honour. Hastings adopted the most vigorous measures to meet this new crisis, he augmented the army, he embodied the militia of Calcutta, to the number of a thousand, and sent Mr Elliott to the Rajah of Berar to secure his alliance by

the offer of assisting him to obtain the office of Peshwa. The negotiation, the success of which would have involved the Company in endless complications, was happily nipped in the bud when the raja heard that the Bombay government were about to support the claims of Paghoba by force of arms, but he liberally supplied Colonel Goddard, with money and provisions, and thus enabled him to reach Boorhanpore without difficulty on the 30th of January, 1749. So strict was the discipline which the Colonel maintained in his army, and so punctual were his payments, that the chiefs and people on the route hastened to furnish him with supplies. At Boorhanpore, he heard of the disaster of the Bombay force at Wurgaum, and immediately turned off to Surat, a distance of 300 miles, which he traversed in twenty days though he was without any map of the country. By this prompt movement he avoided a body of 20 000 Mahratta horse sent from Poona to intercept him. His timely arrival on the western coast proved the salvation of the Bombay Presidency. The unexpected appearance of so large a force from the banks of the Jumna, augmented the reputation of the British power and confirmed its influence at the native courts, which the convention of Wurgaum had impaired.

FIGURE 4 of  
a cat. 1779 This convention was repudiated equally by the Bombay Council and by Hastings, who directed Colonel Goddard to open a fresh negotiation with Nana Furnavee, on the basis of the treaty of Poorunder but with an additional stipulation for the exclusion of the French from the Mahratta dominion. In the meantime Sindia had granted a jaggeer of twelve lacs of rupees in Bundelcund to Raghoba, and sent him under a slender escort to take possession of it. Raghoba, who was permitted to take his body guard and his guns with him attacked and overpowered the escort on the route and escaped to Surat where he was honourably entertained by Colonel Goddard, who settled an allowance of half a lac of rupees a month on him. The whole scheme was evidently a contrivance of Sindia, to procure the release of

receive possession of all the Peshwa's territories north of the Myhee, and that certain districts to the south should be made over to the Company. On the 10th of February, Goddard captured the noble city of Ahmedabad, the modern capital of the province, surrounded by walls of immense extent, and filled with a population of 100,000. The capital was scarcely reduced, when Goddard heard that Sindia and Holkar had forded the Nerbudda with 20,000 horse on the 20th of February, and were advancing to encounter him. Sindia professed great enmity of Nana Furnavese, and great friendship for the English, and liberated the two hostages of Wurgaum, whom he had treated with hospitality. He endeavoured to open negotiations, but Goddard could not fail to perceive that his chief object was to waste the season of operations. Seven days were, therefore, allowed him for a definite reply, and as it did not prove satisfactory, Goddard attacked and dispersed his troops on the 2nd, and again on the 14th of April, and cantoned his army for the season on the banks of the Nerbudda.

Capture of Gwa-  
lor 3rd August,  
1780

On the side of Bengal, the war was conducted with brilliant success. Sixty miles south-east of Agra lay the little independent principality of Gohud, erected by a Jaut chieftain on the decay of the Mogul empire. The rana was incessantly threatened by the encroachments of Sindia, and solicited the protection of Hastings, who determined to take advantage of the appeal, and despatch an expedition, chiefly however with the view of creating a salutary diversion. It consisted of only 2,400 infantry, with a small body of cavalry, and a detail of European artillery, but it was commanded by Major Popham, one of the best soldiers in the service. He proceeded on his march in February, 1780, and having expelled the Mahratta invaders from the country, attacked the fortress of Lahar, without battering cannon, and carried it by the gallantry of his men. Fifty miles to the south of it lay the fort of Gwalior, on the summit of a stupendous rock, scarped almost entirely round, and

deemed throughout India impregnable. Sir Fyfe Coote, the veteran hero of the Carnatic, now general in chief in Bengal, had declared that any attempt to capture it more especially without siege guns would be an act of madness. But Popham had set this "glorious object," as he termed it, before him, and determined to accomplish it. For two months he lay about the fortress, maturing his plans with such secrecy as to baffle all suspicion. On the night of the 3rd of August, the troops selected for the assault proceeded under the guidance of Captain Bruce to their destination. Two companies of sepoy's led by four European officers, and followed by twenty English soldiers, applied the scaling ladders to the base of the scarp'd rock, sixteen feet high, then to a steep ascent of forty feet, and, lastly, to a wall of the height of thirty feet. Captain Bruce with twenty sepoy's climbed up the battlements before their approach was suspected. The bewildered garrison made but a feeble resistance, and, by break of day, the British ensign was floating over the renowned fortress of Gwalior, while the Mahratta troops fled to carry the news to Sindia. The report of this brilliant achievement resounded through India, and wiped out the disgrace of the "infamous convention of Wurgaum," as Hastings termed it, and which he considered "it worth crores to obliterate." Popham was promoted to a majority, and then superseded by Colonel Carnac, who brought in additional force with him and not only invaded Malwa, but threatened Sindia's capital. That chief was obliged to quit Poona in haste to attend to the defence of his own dominions, and the object of Hastings in this expedition was fully accomplished. Carnac, however, proved unequal to the enterprise entrusted to him, and allowed his force to be surrounded by the enemy, who obliged him to retreat, and harassed him at every step. Having at length procured a small supply of provisions for his starving troops, by forced contributions, he called a council of war to determine his future conduct. Captain Bruce, who was fortunately with the force, urged a



nearly exhausted), he was encumbered with 6000 cwt., and had only 2,000 jaded troops fit for duty; but he felt the importance of maintaining his communications with Goddard, which Nana was endeavouring to cut off, and he took up a strong position at Doo-gur, where he sustained the assault of 20,000 Maharratta horse for two days. On the third, the 12th of December, 1780, their gallant and valiant general, Ramchunder Gunness, was killed, the army became dispirited and fled precipitately with heavy loss. Bassein had fallen the previous day to Goddard with the loss of only thirteen of his men, and he immediately moved down to the support of Colonel Hurdley, and, on surveying the field of action, expressed his admiration of the judicious position he had chosen, and the valour of his troops. Thus was all the reward that gallant soldier ever received for his achievements in this war, he was immediately after superseded, and the public service deprived of his talents at the time when they were most urgently needed.

Failure of  
Goddard's ex-  
pedition to  
Poona, &c.

Hastings, alarmed by Hyder's irruption into the Carnatic, considered it important to the safety of British interests in India to make peace with the Maharrattas, and he proposed a treaty on reasonable terms, through the raja of Nagpore, who, was still friendly to the English though he had joined the confederacy. But on hearing of the destruction of Baillie's force in the Carnatic, in September, 1780, he considered their affairs desperate, and hesitated to become mediator, except on conditions to which the Governor General would not accede. Goddard, conceiving that the desire for peace on the part of the Poona darbar would be quickened by an advance towards Poona, ascended the ghauts with a large force. This expedition, which proved to be a total failure, was the only mistake of his career. After having injudiciously taken post at the Bhore ghaut, he was incessantly harassed by the Maharratta army, and obliged at length to retreat, when he was vigorously attacked by Holkar with 20,000 horse, and did not reach Bombay without the loss of

450, killed and wounded. The discomfiture of this renowned general was considered by the Mahrattas one of their most signal victories, and it was a fortunate circumstance that at this critical period the troops of Sindia should have been engaged in defending his own territories, many hundred miles distant. This inauspicious expedition, which terminated on the 23rd of April, 1781, was the last operation of the war, although more than a twelvemonth elapsed before the conclusion of peace.

Arrangement  
with the  
1780.

The raja of Berar, to support appearances with his confederates, sent an army of 30,000 horse in October, 1779, under his son Chimmajee towards Cuttack, for the ostensible purpose of invading Bengal, but he endeavoured to convince Hastings that his intentions were not hostile, by prolonging its march for seven months, and then employing it in the reduction of a fort in Orissa. To relieve Madras from the pressure of Hyder's army, Hastings resolved to aid it by a force from Bengal. But a body of Bengal sepoy, who had recently been ordered to embark at Vizagapatam for Madras, objecting to a sea voyage on account of their caste prejudices, had murdered their officers, and committed great outrages. To avoid the recurrence of such a scene, Hastings determined to send the Bengal detachment along the coast by land, though the distance was seven hundred miles, and the route lay through unknown and hostile provinces. This was another of those "frantic military exploits" of Hastings, which served to overawe the native princes, and to establish the ascendancy of British power. Colonel Pearce started with the army on the 9th of January, 1781, and it was on the line of march in Orissa that one half his force perished of cholera, and this is apparently the first notice which we have of the existence of a disease which has proved the mysterious scourge of the nineteenth century. Colonel Pearce experienced the same friendly support from the raja of Nagpore, which that prince had previously given to Goddard. Hastings, with the

view of detaching the raja from the confederacy, and enlisting him against Hyder, had made him a promise of sixteen lacs of rupees, of which three had already been paid. Chund najeer was, at this time, in great distress for money, and Hastings eagerly embraced the opportunity of offering the remainder of the sum, on the condition of a treaty of alliance, which was soon after concluded, with the proviso that 2,000 of the raja's horse should accompany the detachment, and act against Hyder. "Thus, remarked Hastings, with exultation, "have we converted an ostensible enemy into a declared friend, and transferred the most formidable member of the confederacy, after Hyder, to our own party, saved Bengal from a state of dangerous alarm, if not from actual invasion, and all the horrors of a predatory war, and have completed the strength of Colonel Pearce's detachment."

Treaty with  
Sindia, 12th  
Oct., 1781

The signal defeat of Sindia by Colonel Camac convinced him that he had everything to lose by a contest with the English in the heart of his dominions, which might end in driving him across the Nerbudda without land or friends, and extinguishing his influence in the Mahratta commonwealth. He accordingly made overtures to Colonel Muir, which Hastings was but too happy to entertain, and they terminated in a treaty which was concluded on the 13th of October. The territory west of the Jumna, from which he had been expelled by Major Poplam, was restored to him, with the exception of the fort of Gwalior, which was reserved for the raja of Gohur, and he engaged to negotiate a treaty between the other belligerents and the British government, but, at all events, to stand neutral. The treaty gave great umbrage to Nana Furnavese partly because it acknowledged Sindia as an independent power, but chiefly because this assumption of the office of plenipotentiary served to increase his power and his importance.

Treaty of  
Salbye, 17th  
May 1782.

Hastings's anxiety for peace with the Mahratta Regency was quickened by the arrival of a French armament on the coast which, under existing cir-

inhabitants to the most revolting cruelties, leaving nothing in the track of his soldiers but burnt and desolated villages

Second attack  
on Tanjore,  
1772.

In June, 1773, the Nabob again demanded the aid of the Madras government to crush the raja, he had not, he said, fulfilled his engagements, ten lacs of rupees were still due from him, and he had, moreover, made application to Hyder and to the Mahrattas for support. The Council ridiculed the preposterous idea of going to war with him for arrears. They knew that he had exhausted his treasury to make good the extortionate fine imposed on him, of which he had been enabled to pay five-sixths by mortgaging his districts and his jewels to the Dane at Tranquebar, and the Dutch at Negapatam. As to the overtures he had made to Hyder and the Mahrattas, they remarked that the treaty of 1769 had placed him under the protection of Hyder,

1773, deposed the raja and made over his country to the Nabob. The Court of Directors, astounded by the report of this infamous proceeding, lost no time in expelling the President, Mr Wynch, from the service, and ordering the raja to be restored, placing him for the future under the safeguard of British honour.

Lord Pigot,  
governor of  
Madras 11th  
Dec 175

The vacant chair at Madras was bestowed on Lord Pigot, who had gone out to Madras forty years before, and, after having risen to the post of President, returned to England with a fortune of forty lacs of rupees, and was honoured with an Irish peerage. The old man was now seized with the mania of going back to Madras as governor. He found, on his arrival, that the system of speculation and extortion had intermediately attained great maturity, and he set himself to the task of cleansing the Augean stable, which set the whole settlement in a blaze. To prevent the restoration of Tanjore to the raja the Nabob prepared no art or intrigue, he went so far as to offer a bribe of sixty lacs of rupees to the governor himself, if he would only postpone the transfer, but the orders of the Court of Directors were peremptory, and Lord Pigot proceeded in person to Tanjore, and seated the raja on the throne on the 11th of April, 1776, leaving an English garrison for the defence of the country. But the restoration was no sooner proclaimed than Mr Paul Benfield came forward and asserted that he had an assignment on the revenues of Tanjore from the Nabob of sixteen lacs of rupees, and a claim on the standing crop of seven lacs for sums lent to the husbandmen. Nothing can more clearly demonstrate the total demoralization of the public service at the Madras Presidency than the fact that this Benfield, occupying an inferior post, not worth more than 200 or 300 rupees a month, and keeping the grandest equipages at Madras, should not consider it by any means preposterous to assert that he had advanced twenty three lacs of rupees on the revenues of the province. The Council called for vouchers, which he was unable to produce, but he assured them that the Nabob was

prepared to admit the obligation, of which there could be no doubt, as the claim had evidently been concocted between them to defraud the Company and the raja. After long deliberation the Council, on the 29th of May, 1776 rejected the claim.

But the Council soon repented of this act of Deposition and death of Figot, 1777 *virtue*. They and the other members of the civil service were creditors of the Nahoo to the extent of a crore and a half of rupees, and they discovered that by rejecting the claim of Benfield they had impaired the hold on the revenues of Tanjore. The vote was reconsidered. Lord Pigot and his friends strenuously resisted the proceedings but a majority of seven to five resolved that the assignments made to Paul Benfield were valid. The dispute was widened by other questions, and both parties became inflamed. Lord Pigot unconstitutionally suspended two of the members of Council and ordered the commandant Sir Robert Fletcher to be placed under arrest. Fletcher was the officer whom Clive had dismissed ten years before during the mutiny of the officers in Bengal which he had fomented but whom the Court of Directors had, out of opposition to Clive restored to the service. The majority of the Council then assumed the

Rumbold, go-  
vernor of  
Madras, 8th  
Feb 1778.

The state of affairs at Madras was not at all improved by the appointment of Sir Thomas

Rumbold, who had been trained up in the Bengal school of corruption, as his successor. The Northern Sircars formed the only territory from which the Madras Presidency derived any revenue, but the malversations of the collectors left but a small portion of it to the state. The Court of Directors had, therefore, been induced to order five of the members of Council to proceed to the province, and after diligent investigation, to place the settlement on a satisfactory basis. Sir Thomas Rumbold, immediately on his arrival at Madras, cancelled the commission, and ordered the zemindars to repair in person to the Presidency, a distance of 600 miles, through a country without a road. The zemindars who were able to afford the cost, were required, on reaching the Presidency, to transact business with the governor alone, to the exclusion of the members of Council. The principal zemindar, Viziram raj, who was, in fact, a local prince, pleaded the injury which his affairs must suffer during his absence, as an excuse for not leaving his estates. But his brother hastened to the Presidency, and having given a bribe of a lac of rupees to the governor's secretary, was appointed dewan, in spite of all his brother's remonstrances, and thus obtained the entire control and management of the zemindary. Sir Thomas Rumbold himself was found to have remitted four lacs and a half of rupees to England after he had been six months at Madras, and the suspicions to which so large a remittance gave rise, were never satisfactorily removed.

The Guntour  
Sircar 1778.

The treaty with the Nizam in 1768, had given the reversion of the Guntour Sircar to the Company, after the death of his brother, Brulut Jung. That prince, with Adoni for the capital of his little principality, was ambitious of increasing his power and territory, and had gradually formed a French corps under M. Lally, which received recruits and supplies through the little seaport of Mooty II. The Madras government repeatedly remonstrated against the

the Nizam and to neutralize his hostility as a member of the grand confederacy. This friendly disposition was likewise improved by the discovery he had recently made, that Hyder Ali's ambition had led him to send a mission to Delhi and to obtain a suzerainty from the phantom of an emperor conferring on him the whole of the Hyderabad territories. The French troops, which Balaht Jung was constrained to dismiss, were immediately taken into the service of the Nizam and the utility which their presence in the Deccan inspired was greatly augmented. Sir Thomas Rumbold remonstrated with great vehemence against this interference of the Governor General in the political movements of the Madras Presidency, but the measure of his transgressions was now full and in January, 1781, the Court of Directors after passing the severest censure on his conduct, expelled him from the situation which he had filled and disgraced for more than two years. But he anticipated their decision by deserting his post and returning to England, as soon as the war with Hyder, which his folles had provoked, was on the eve of breaking out.\*

Progress of  
the  
1780

Before entering on the narrative of the second Mysore war in 1780 a brief review of Hyder's progress, after he had been constrained to make

peace with the Mahattas in 1772, appears desirable. The confusion created in the Mahatta counsels by the murder of the young Peshwa, Narayan Rao, afforded Hyder an opportunity of enlarging his territories which he was not slow to improve. In November of that year he subjugated the principality of Coorg which offered the noblest resistance, and was therefore, treated with more than ordinary barbarity. The sum of five rupees was offered for the head of each male, and Hyder took his seat in state to distribute the rewards. After 700 heads had thus been paid for, two of surpassing beauty were laid at his feet, and he was so stultified by their comeliness as to order the execution to cease. The circumstance is remarkable as this is said to have been the only instance in which he ever exhibited any emotion of pity. He

\* See Appendix.



pursued this career of conquest with uninterrupted success, and in one short campaign, extending from September, 1773, to February, 1774, recovered all the districts of which he had been dispossessed by the Mahrattas, and strengthened his power in Malhar. In 1775, he reduced the fortress of Bellary, belonging to Baslut Jung, whom he constrained to purchase peace by the sacrifice of a lac of pagodas. He then proceeded to extinguish the power which Moran Rao, the renowned chieftain of Gooty, had been employed for thirty years in building up, and before the end of 1776, had extinguished the independence of Savanoor.

Raghoba, during his vicissitudes, had been in constant communication with Hyder Ali, who had acknowledged his title, and furnished him, from time to time, with funds to the extent of sixteen lacs of rupees, receiving in return a confirmation of all the territories he had recently conquered. The cabinet at Poona, alarmed at his encroachments, formed an alliance with the Nizam, hoping, at the same time, to demolish all the hopes of Raghoba. A Mahratta army of 30,000, and a Hyderabad army of 40,000, accordingly took the field in 1776, but were unable to achieve any success. The invasion was renewed the next year, but the general of the Nizam was rendered inactive by the gold of Hyder, and the Mahratta commander-in-chief was obliged to retreat in consequence of the desertion of one of his generals, whom Hyder had corrupted with six lacs of rupees. The year 1778 was marked by the most active and successful exertions on the part of Hyder, and at the close of it he was enabled to contemplate the fertile banks of the Kistna as the northern boundary of his dominions. In May, 1779, he attacked the Nabob of Kurpa, who had sided with his opponents in the recent war, and annexed all his territories.

The resentment which Hyder manifested at the refusal of the government of Madras to afford him any assistance, in 1772, when pressed to

extremity by the Mahrattas, did not prevent his making overtures to them, in 1773, but all his efforts to establish a friendly intercourse were defeated by the machinations of the Nabob, Mhomed Ali Hyder then turned to the French at Pondicherry, where his envoys were received with great eagerness by the governor, M Bellecombe. The inveterate hostility and incessant invasions of the Mahrattas, however, induced him again to court the alliance of the English, and he offered his assistance towards the establishment of Raghoba at Poona, asking, in return, only for a supply of stores and arms, and a small body of troops, for which he was willing to make a suitable payment. The proposal, though acceptable both at Calcutta and Madras, was not entertained with any degree of cordiality.

Capture of  
Pondicherry  
1798

In the month in which this negotiation was in progress, information was received of the commencement of hostilities between France and

England, and a force was soon after sent against Pondicherry, the fortifications of which had been completely restored. The place was defended by the gallant Bellecombe for ten weeks with great constancy, but capitulated at length in the month of October, 1778, when the garrison was permitted to march out with all the honours of war. The governor of Madras, in announcing this success to Hyder, offered to renew the negotiations, and to place a resident at his court, but intimated, at the same time, his intention to send an expedition to capture Mahe. This was a small French settlement on the Malabar coast, through which Hyder had, for three years, been in the habit of receiving recruits and supplies of every description from Europe, and the continued occupation of which by his French allies was to him a matter of great importance. He replied that he considered all the foreign settlements, English, French and Dutch, equally under his protection, that he should support the French garrison with all his strength, and retaliate any attack by an invasion of the Carnatic. Hyder's troops accordingly as-

sisted in the defence of the fort, and his colours were hoisted side by side with those of the French, but the place surrendered in March, 1779. Hyder did not disguise his resentment from the governor of Madras, and the tone of his communications created so much alarm as to induce Sir Thomas Rumbold to send the celebrated missionary, Swartz, to allay his feelings, and to sound his disposition. Hyder received the missionary with great respect, but nothing was gained by the mission except the most unequivocal evidence of his hostility.

Hyder joins  
the confederacy  
1779

While Hyder's feelings were thus exasperated against the Madras authorities, he received intelligence that Colonel Harper, who had been sent to take possession of Guntoor, was marching through the province of Kurpa, which he had recently conquered, without even asking his permission. His indignation was roused to the highest pitch, and he declared that he would neither allow an English force to occupy Guntoor, or to proceed to Adoni; and his officers were ordered to resist the progress of Colonel Harper by an armed force. Basalut Jung was likewise obliged, by the menaces of Hyder and of the Nizam, to request that the march of the English troops might be countermanded, and the *sircar* restored, but with this request the Madras Government did not see fit to comply. Meanwhile, an envoy arrived at Serenagapatam from Poona, to represent that Hyder, equally with the Mahrattas, had reason to complain of the breach of their engagements by the English Government, and to request him to join the confederacy which had been formed to expel them from India. The Mahratta ministers offered to adjust all their differences with him, to relinquish all claims for arrears of *chout*, to limit his future payments to eleven lacs of rupees a year, and to confirm the grants of territory up to the *kistna*, made by Raghoba. Hyder accepted these proposals with avidity, and agreed to put forth his whole strength for the extermination of the British power. A few months after, Sir

Thomas Rumbold sent Mr Grey to Seringapatam to offer an alliance with the Mysore state, but he was treated with studied indignity, and informed that the offer of friendship came too late. Osman Hyder's minister, in the course of the discussions took occasion to remark that he had been at Madras and had seen how the English treated their allies. "Mahomed Ali," he said, "shewed me several letters he had received from the King of England but he complained of the lacs of pagodas which each one had cost him."

Hyder's preparation for war 1780

For many months Hyder had been making preparations for war on the largest scale, superintending every arrangement in person, though

then in his seventy eighth year, and by the end of June, had equipped the most efficient force ever collected under the standard of a native prince. It consisted of 90 000 horse and 1 foot, a large proportion of which had been trained and was commanded by European officers. It was supported by a powerful artillery, directed by European science and skill, and his commissariat was admirably organized by a brahmin of the name of Poornea. At Madras no preparation was made to meet the coming storm. In a spirit of infatuation which has no parallel in our Indian history, the members of government refused even to acknowledge the danger, and the idea of an invasion became the topic of ridicule. The President informed the Court of Directors with peculiar satisfaction that the country was in perfect tranquillity, and that there was "the greatest prospect that this part of India would remain quiet." Even so late as the 17th of July while Hyder was advancing through the passes the commander in chief declared that all apprehensions were groundless.

Hyder's visit to the Carnatic, 20th July 1780

These illusions were speedily dispelled. Hyder, having completed the equipment of his army, and ordered prayers for its success to be put up in the mosques and offerings to be made in the Hindoo temples, burst on the Carnatic, through the Changanassery pass, on the

20th of July, 1780, and his progress was marked by the blaze of towns and villages. He appeared anxious, on this occasion, to exhaust all the resources of cruelty which a mind never sensible to pity could suggest. The wretched inhabitants were required to emigrate to Mysore with their flocks and herds, and those who lingered about their homesteads, were mutilated without discrimination. With the exception of four forts held by four English lieutenants every fort, as far as the Coleroon, was surrendered by the commandants of Mahomed Ali, whom Hyder Ali had corrupted. The incredulity of the Council was at length dispelled by the announcement that his troops had surrounded Conjeveram, only fifty miles from Madras. But it was not till black clouds of smoke were seen in every quarter from St Thomas's Mount, distant only nine miles from Madras, that any order was issued for the movement of troops to repel the enemy. The main body of the British army encamped at the Mount was about 5,200 strong, and the force sent to occupy Guntur, now commanded by Colonel Bailie, amounted to about 2,800 men. It was of the last importance that a junction should be at once effected of these two bodies, but Hyder had laid siege to Arcot, which contained the few military stores which the Nabob possessed, and, after a succession of distracted councils at Madras, it was determined to make an effort to relieve it. Sir Hector Munro, the general in chief, therefore, proceeded to Conjeveram, and Colonel Bailie, who had arrived within twenty five miles of Madras, was ordered to make a circuitous march of fifty miles to join him.

Col. nel Bailie's  
movements,  
180

Colonel Bailie had reached the banks of the Cortella, then nearly dry, but liable to be swollen by mountain torrents, on the 20th of August, and imprudently encamped on the northern bank. On that night the stream became impassable, and he was unable to cross it before the 4th of September. Hyder immediately despatched his son, Tippoo, with the flower of his army and eighteen guns, to arrest the progress of this brigade. Tippoo

whole of the Mysore army. It was in vain that his men performed prodigies of valour, and repeatedly stormed the batteries. The enemy had chosen their positions with great skill, and poured in a destructive fire. The European soldiers, though they had sustained thirteen attacks, and were reduced to 300, still called out to be led against their assailants, but Baillie refused to sacrifice the lives of these brave men, and held out a flag of truce. They had *pro* sooner laid down their arms, however, than Hyder's men rushed upon them, and would have butchered the whole body, if the French officers had not interposed to save them. Of 86 officers, 70 were killed or wounded, and the whole army, with all its stores, baggage and equipments was totally and irretrievably lost. Sir Hector Munro's force was only two miles distant at the time, and if he had come up during the engagement, the defeat would have been turned into a victory, and the fortunes of the war completely changed. On the following day he threw his heavy guns into the great tank, or pond, at Conjeveram, and retreated in haste and disorder to Madras, hotly pursued by the enemy, and losing baggage at every turn. And thus terminated in disaster and disgrace, this brief campaign of twenty-one days, in which the heroism of the men formed a melancholy contrast to the utter incompetence of their generals.

Hastings's energetic measures,  
1801.

A vessel was immediately dispatched to Calcutta with information of the disaster. To the embarrassment of a war with the Mahrattas, was now added a war with Hyder, which had commenced with the greatest reverse the English arms had hitherto sustained in India. But never did the genius of Hastings appear to more advantage than in this emergency. "All my hopes," he wrote, "of aggrandizing the British name and enlarging the interests of the Company, have given instant place to the more urgent call to support the existence of both in the Carnatic, nor did I hesitate a moment to abandon my own views for such an object." Mr Whitelill, the governor of Madras

who had persisted in retaining Guntoor, after he had received orders from Calcutta to restore it, was suspended from his office to the great satisfaction of the settlement, though, as Hastings remarked, "the creature made some show of resistance." All the troops which could be spared were immediately despatched, together with fifteen lacs of rupees, for the sole use of the army, and not as a civil supply, and such was the energy displayed on this occasion, that the whole embarkation and all the measures projected for so great an occasion, were completed within three weeks. The veteran, Sir Eyre Coote, had succeeded Sir John Clavering, as commander in chief in Bengal, and was solicited to proceed to Madras and restore the honour of the British name. He was now advanced in years, and feeble in health, but he would not decline this honourable summons to the scene of his early triumphs. But the boldest measure which Hastings adopted at this crisis, was to stop the Company's investment, and apply the funds to the expedition. Even this provision, however, was found to be insufficient. It was a subject of exultation, that during the eight years of his administration, he had not only discharged debts to the extent of a crore and a half of rupees, but replenished the treasury with double that sum, it was, therefore, with no ordinary chagrin that he was now obliged to have recourse to a loan.

Defence of  
Wan Jewash,  
181

Sir Eyre Coote reached Madras on the 5th of November, and found the equipment of the army so wretched, and the difficulty of obtaining draft and carriage cattle in a country swept by hostile cavalry so great, that it was the 17th of January before he was able to move his army. Hyder had resumed the siege of Arcot, and its small European garrison, after holding out for six weeks, was obliged to retire to the citadel which Clive had defended for fifty days. But the Nabob's brahmin commandant, under Hyder's influence, spread a spirit of disaffection among the native troops to such an extent that the European officers had no alternative but to capitulate. Hyder was at

the same time engaged in besieging five other forts, one of which, Wandewash, was defended by Lieutenant Flint and a brother officer, with such romantic valour and such military skill that the siege became one of the most honourable events of the war. This distinguished officer, however, received no other reward for his eminent services but the applause of Sir Eyre Coote, whose admiration of the resources which had been employed knew no bounds. The Court of Directors refused even to promote him to the command of a company. Soon after, Sir Eyre Coote revived the drooping spirits of the army by the capture of Carangolly, which Hyder had fortified with great care.

Bar 2 of Porto  
Nov, 1st July  
181.

On the 8th of February, the general marched southward to Cuddalore where he was subjected

to the most mortifying embarrassment for supplies, which he could receive only by sea. The hostile armies remained inactive for four months. Coote unable to move for want of provisions, and Hyder dreading an encounter with him. On the 18th of June, Coote attacked the fortified and well provisioned temple of Chillumbrum but met with a repulse. Hyder was elated by this his first success against the renowned English commander, and resolved to risk a general engagement. Though on the verge of eighty, he marched up to Cuddalore a hundred miles in two days and a half, and took up a strong position in its neighbourhood which he began to fortify. Coote ignorant of the nature or strength of the enemy's works, resolved as his last resource to sally forth and attack them. His battering guns were sent on board the vessel lying off the town, together with every other impediment, and the troops marched to the assault with the remaining provisions, enough only for four days on their backs. After advancing a little distance, Coote perceived a road which Hyder had been cutting through the sand hills the previous night, and immediately pushed his detachments through the gap in the teeth of a heavy cannonade. After a long and arduous engagement, of six hours



duration, the valour of the British troops was rewarded by a complete victory, with the loss of only 300 men. The result of the action was most decisive. Hyder, who had lost 10,000 soldiers, abandoned his designs on Trichunopoly, and Tippoo raised the siege of Wandewash, which the gallant Hunt still continued to defend.

Battle of  
Pollilore, 7th  
Aug., 1781

The Bengal brigade sent down the coast under Colonel Pearce, had been recruited after the havoc of the cholera and reached Pulicat, forty miles north of Madras, in July, 1781. Hyder detached Tippoo with a large force to intercept it, and Coote marched 150 miles from Porto Novo to form a junction with it, which he effected on the 2nd of August. A similar movement, even with less foresight and vigour on the part of Sir Hector Munro in the preceding year, would have saved Bailhe's army from destruction. Hyder had unaccountably allowed Coote to march through the country without that obstruction which he could have offered at every step, but he determined to make up for his neglect by opposing his return with great vigour, and advanced with the whole of the Mysore army to the spot where a twelvemonth before he had exterminated Bailhe's force. He considered this a most fortunate spot for another battle, and his astrologers predicted a certain victory, if it took place on the same lucky day of the same lunar month—the 11th Ramzan, or the 27th of August. The engagement, called after the neighbouring village, Pollilore, lasted through out the day, but the result was doubtful, both parties firing a salute for victory. The action cost Hyder 2,000 men, while the loss on the side of the English was about 400. The next day, Coote's army was employed in the melancholy duty of interring the remains of Colonel Bailhe's detachment in the same graves with their own dead. Vellore, one of the few fortresses left to the English, was at this time straitened for provisions and the commandant represented the impossibility of holding out unless he was relieved. Coote advanced to raise the siege, and Hyder marched to

part of prevent the attempt. The armies met again for the third time during the year at Solingur, on the 27th of September 1781 Hyder having come to the conclusion that Coote could not, or would not attack him on that day, had allowed his cattle and the drivers and followers to disperse and the rapid movement of the British columns took him by surprise Coote obtained a complete victory, which owing to his admirable dispositions involved the loss of only 100 men, while that of the Mysore army exceeded 2000 Within a few days however, Vellore was again reduced to extremity for supplies, and though the monsoon had set in Coote made three forced marches and provisioned it for three months Hyder did not venture again to attack him, and the British army soon after retired into cantonments at Madras, after a campaign in which all the plans of Hyder were baffled by the consummate strategy of Coote, and Coote's expectations were defeated by the wretched state of his equipments and the total absence of a commissariat.

Lord Macartney  
governor of  
Madras, 1781.

The question of filling up the vacant chair at Madras now came up before the Court of Directors.

In the brief period of seven years, two governors had been dismissed by them and one suspended by Hastings, for gross misconduct, and a fourth had been deposed by his own Council and died in confinement The service was thoroughly demoralised and it was therefore determined to try the experiment of placing the government in the hands of a new man uncontaminated with the general corruption, and a stranger to all local associations whom might be expected to bring dignity to the office, and restore vigour to the administration The choice fell on Lord Macartney a nobleman of much political experience and unbiassed with a high sense of honour He reached Madras on the 2nd of June and brought the first intelligence of the declaration of war with the Dutch Their principal settlement on the coast at Negapatam 160 miles south of Madras, was at the time garrisoned by a body of 6000 troops, and Hyder Ali lost no time in

opening negotiations with the chief, which resulted in a treaty on the basis of mutual co operation against the English. Lord Macartney was anxious to prevent this formidable accession to the resources of Hyder, and resolved to attack the town, while he was able to reckon upon the assistance of the fleet, before the approaching change of the monsoon. Without abstracting a single soldier from the army of Sir Eyre Coote, who discountenanced the expedition, he drew together a force from Tanjore and Madras, and placed it under the command of Sir Hector Munro. The fleet contributed a large body of

Capture of  
Negapatnam  
1781 and  
Trincomalee  
1782.      marines and seamen, to whose steadiness and gallantry the early surrender of the place was chiefly owing. It fell on the 12th of November, and was found to contain, in addition to a large quantity of military stores, two annual investments of great value. In the following January, Trincomalee, the noblest harbour in the island of Ceylon, was also wrested from the Dutch.

Arrangement  
with Mahomed  
Ali 2nd Dec.,  
1781      The pressure of events on the coast forced the question of the Carnatic revenues on the consideration of the government at Madras and Calcutta. The heavy expenses of the war fell exclusively on the Company's treasury, the province itself contributed nothing to its own defence, as the Nabob and his creditors absorbed the little revenue which was raised. While the troops of Coote were on half rations, the officers of the Nabob were selling the provisions collected for their support, and remitting the proceeds to his private purse. All his efforts were directed to impede, and often to counteract the movements of the British troops. Not a single soldier in his pay was sent to Coote's camp while his officers betrayed every fort to the enemy, and his own brother made over the fortress of Chundergerree to Hyder, with all the grain stored in it—for a consideration. The venality and political profligacy of the Nabob's court, unmatched in India, was the constant theme of Coote's indignant remonstrance. The nuisance became at length in-

supportable, and the Nabob, after repeated evasions, was constrained to resign the revenues of the Carnatic for a period of five years, at the least, with a reservation of one-sixth for his personal expenditure and for his creditors.

Defeat of  
Brathwaite's  
success at Tel-  
cherry 1800

Colonel Brathwaite, who had assisted at the capture of Negapatam, was subsequently employed in establishing the Nabob's authority in Tanjore, which Tippoo had been sent to ravage. The Colonel was encamped on the banks of the Coleroon, when, owing to the treachery of his guides who were all in the pay of the enemy, he was surprised by Tippoo, with 20,000 horse and foot, and 20 guns. The valour and constancy of British troops have seldom been more conspicuous than on this trying occasion. During twenty six hours of unremitted conflict they sustained without flinching the repeated charges of the Mysore horse, and the fire of their cannon, but sunk at length from wounds and exhaustion, and would have been annihilated by the troops of Tippoo, but for the generous exertions of the French officers, who appreciated their heroism. This disaster was counterbalanced by a victory on the opposite coast. Tellicherry, a fortified factory, and the only English possession in Malabar, had sustained a siege of eighteen months by a Mysore force. Early in February, the garrison, which had been reinforced, made a sortie, and captured 1,200 of the enemy, together with all their baggage, equipments, and 60 pieces of cannon. The reverse thus inflicted on Hyder emboldened the conquered Nairs to rise throughout the province, and excited a violent reaction in Coorg.

Hyder began to give way to despondency. He had been foiled in every engagement with Sir Eyre Coote in which he was not signally defeated. He was deceived, as he supposed, by his French allies, who had engaged to come to his assistance, but had failed him for twenty months. The revolt, kindled on the western coast, might extend to his capital. The Governor General had succeeded in detaching Sindia, and the Nizam and Bhonslay from

the confederacy, and the Poona darbar now threatened to unite with the English, and compel him to accede to a peace which would deprive him of all the advantages of the war, unless he consented to resign to them the territories he had acquired between the Toombudra and the Kistna, and abandon all claims on the poligars south of that river. He disguised his feelings to his minister, Poornea. He lamented his folly in having provoked a war with the English. There were, he admitted, mutual grounds of dissatisfaction, but still he might have made them his friends notwithstanding the intrigues of the wretched Nabob. "The defeat of many Brathwaites and many Bailies," he said, "will not crush them. I may ruin their resources by land, but I cannot dry up the sea, and I must be exhausted by a war in which I can gain nothing by fighting." He resolved therefore, to abandon all operations in the Carnatic, and to concentrate his efforts on the western coast. He had issued instructions for the entire destruction of the districts on the Coromandel coast, that he might leave no vestige of human habitation behind him, and had ordered the defences of Arcot to be undermined, when all these gloomy forebodings were at once dissipated by the appearance of the long expected French armament on the coast.

French expedition,  
vol. 1. p. 82.

Early in 1781, the French government made preparations for the despatch of a powerful fleet and army to India, under the command of the veteran Bussy, but the capture of two successive convoys by English cruisers retarded the execution of the plan. The first division at length reached the Mauritius, and was at once sent forward to the Coromandel coast. The death of the admiral during the voyage gave the command of the fleet to Suffrein, an officer of extraordinary enterprise and resources. He made the coast off Pulicat with twelve sail of the line and eighteen transports, as Admiral Hughes was returning in January, 1782, from the capture of Trincomalee. Hughes, who had only six vessels with him, was fortunately reinforced by three

others which had arrived from England, and bore down on the French squadron, and succeeded in cutting off six of the transports. The action was indecisive, and Suffrein proceeded to Porto Novo, where he landed 2,000 French soldiers and 1,000 Africans. Soon after, Hyder had an interview with the French commanders, when it was determined to attempt the reduction of Cuddalore, and await the arrival of Bussy for larger operations. The extensive fortifications of that place had been incautiously left in charge of only 400 sepoys and five artillerymen, and it surrendered without any show of resistance. A few weeks after, the important post of Permacoil was captured by Hyder. On the 12th of April, there was a second action between the fleets, but without any decisive result, and both the admirals were obliged to retire and refit their disabled vessels.

Act on before  
Arnee, 2nd  
June, 1782.

Coote began now in his turn to despond, he considered the aspect of affairs, not only embarrassing, but even desperate. In the hope of bringing on a general action, he marched to Wandewash, which was besieged by the united armies of the French and of Hyder, but they refused the challenge, and retired to Pondicherry. With the view of drawing them from the position which they had strongly fortified Coote determined to attempt the capture of Arnee, the chief depot of Hyder in the southern provinces. Tippoo was sent to protect it, and an engagement ensued on the 2nd of June, the only result of which was the capture of one gun and eleven tumbrils, while Hyder was enabled to accomplish his object of rescuing his treasure and stores from danger. Six weeks after, he drew a young officer, who had been entrusted with a large detachment, into an ambuscade, enveloped it with his cavalry, and inflicted on it the loss of two guns and 166 men.

other result than to defeat the views of the French on that town Suffren retired to Cuddalore where he repaired the damage his fleet had sustained with incredible speed and energy, and then sailed southwards Lord Macartney had received intelligence that a second French force had arrived at Point de Galle, and that Bussy himself was immediately expected on the coast He began to tremble for the safety both of Negapatam and Trincomalee, and urged Admiral Hughes to follow the French fleet with all expedition But the energy of that officer by no means corresponded with his skill and courage, and he was, moreover, jealous of any interference with his command, and in this instance did not hesitate to sacrifice the interests of his country to his own caprice Suffren hastened to Galle, embarked the force of 2,400, which had recently arrived, and landed them at Trincomalee The siege was pushed with extraordinary vigour, and the garrison was obliged to capitulate on the 31st of August, though on the most honourable terms Four days later the dilatory Hughes looked into the harbour, and saw the French colours flying on the ramparts The next day witnessed the fourth action between the two fleets, but though it lasted throughout the day, it terminated like all which had preceded it, without any result The approach of darkness separated the combatants This was the last and the severest naval engagement of the year, which was marked as much by the exertions of the fleets, as by the inactivity of the armies

He gives sails for  
15 May 1781  
10 October 1782

Admiral Hughes returned to Madras, and announced the necessity of proceeding forthwith to Bombay to refit his vessels, which had kept the sea during the monsoon of 1781, and had sustained serious damage in four successive general actions The governor represented to him the desperate condition to which the interests of the Company would be reduced by his departure, and earnestly pressed him to remain Hyder, he said, was master of the Carnatic, the possession of Trincomalee would

retrograde movement he considered a great misfortune, but it proved the salvation of his army. On the 19th of November Tippoo overtook the retreating force, which was constrained to fight every step of its march, and arrived at dusk on the banks of the Pamani, but, regarding them as a sure and easy prey, he neglected to watch their movements, and the colonel, having discovered a ford, passed his whole army over under cover of the night, and reached the town of Pamani the next day. On the 29th of November Tippoo made an assault in four columns on the British army, but was driven back with great loss. He then determined to blockade the force, and wait the arrival of his heavy equipments, when, on the 12th of December, his whole army was seen to strike its tents and march off to the eastward. A dromedary

Death of Hyder  
7th December  
182.

express had arrived the preceding evening with intelligence of the death of Hyder Ali. His health had been declining during the year, and his end was hastened by the fatigues of the field. He died at the advanced age of eighty, leaving behind him the reputation of one of the ablest, most enterprising, and most successful adventurers in the modern history of India.

Hyder's death  
concealed 1782.

Poornea, a Mahratta brahmin, the ablest of Hyder's ministers, in conjunction with his distinguished colleague, Kishna Rao, a Canarese brahmin, assumed the management of affairs, and acted with consummate prudence. Tippoo, the son and successor of Hyder, was four hundred miles distant, and an Asiatic army, deprived of its head, always becomes a scene of intrigue and confusion. Hyder's death was therefore carefully concealed in the camp. The body was embalmed and sent under an escort to the capital as it had been usual to despatch chests of valuable plunder. All answers to letters were issued, and all orders published in his name, and his closed palanquin, with the accustomed retinue moved out at the usual hour from the canvas inclosure of his tent. Tippoo, on receiving intelligence of his father's death, immediately abandoned the western campaign,



and hastened to join the army on the Coramandel coast which he reached on the 2nd of January. The troops were gratified by the payment of arrears, and a liberal donative, the ministers who had maintained the royal authority at this difficult crisis were confirmed in office and Tippoo at once succeeded to the command of a splendid army of 100 000 men and to a treasury filled with three crores of rupees, besides an accumulation of jewels and valuables, which Poornea declared to be of countless value.

tention to the expulsion of the English force from the western provinces, justly fearing lest they should be transferred to the Malabattas, whom Hastings was urging to attack him. General Matthews, instead of concentrating his force, which did not exceed 1 600, at the most defensible point, frittered it away in small detachments, and the troops were allowed to disperse over the country in search of plunder. Bednore was, however, defended with great valour, and it was not surrendered till it had become a heap of ruins, and further resistance was hopeless. The capitulation was violated as usual, and the men and officers were marched off in iron, and consigned to dungeons. Tippoo fired a salute for this his first victory over the English troops, and then descended to the coast and invested Mangalore, the siege of which is one of the most memorable events of the war. The strength of the garrison, at the commencement of it was only 1,850, while the investing force under Tippoo amounted to 100,000 with 100 guns. The command of the fort had devolved on Colonel Campbell of the 42nd Highlanders, and a brighter name is not to be found in the annals of British India. It would exceed the limits which can be assigned to this memorable conflict in this brief epitome, to enter into any detail of the siege or to describe how General Macleod who was twice sent to relieve it, was on each occasion cajoled by Tippoo and left his task incomplete, and how an intermediate convention was disgracefully violated and the privations of the brave garrison augmented. It may be sufficient to state that the colonel and his troops defended the place for nine months with an unexpressed resolution against the whole army of Tippoo and did not capitulate until their number was reduced to 850, and those were skeletons.

Whilst Tippoo was thus wasting his strength and his reputation in a siege which cost him half his army, the absence of a Mysore army from the southern provinces, and the peace with France enabled the Madras government to send a powerful force across the Pe-

unsuspecting into the heart of Mysore. This able plan was devised and executed by Colonel Fullarton, who had embraced the military profession late in life, but exhibited talents of a very high order, and would have brought the war with Tippoo to an honourable termination, if he had not been thwarted by the folly of the Madras authorities. His force consisted of 13,600 men, but the native portion of it was twelve months in arrears. On the 15th of November, he captured the renowned fortress of Palghaut, and on the 26th occupied Coimbatore, on the 28th, he had made every preparation for an immediate advance on Seringapatam, while the Mysore army was detained before Mangalore. The capital was within his grasp, but before night he received orders not only to suspend operations, but to relinquish all the districts he had occupied. To explain this singular requisition, it is to be remarked that while Hastings was engaged in urging the Mahrattas, in accordance with the treaty of Salbye, to compel Tippoo to make peace on pain of hostilities, Lord Macarteny, in defiance of the prohibition of the Supreme Government, to which, on such questions, he was entirely subordinate, opened negotiations with Tippoo, and by a singular infatuation, voluntarily agreed to a suspension of arms till a reply was received. So ignorant was the Governor of Madras of native habits, as not to know that any direct offer of peace to a native prince, rendered peace on honourable terms impossible. Tippoo took no notice of the proposals for three months, and then sent one of the most astute of his officers to cozen the President and Council at Madras. After a month passed in jesuitical diplomacy, the envoy proposed that two gentlemen should be deputed to Tippoo to expedite the negotiations. The silly Council swallowed the bait, and even affirmed that this was a proposal which exactly met their wishes. The object of Tippoo was gained, and he was thus enabled to represent at every durbār in India that the English government had sent commissioners all the way from Madras to Mangalore to sue for peace. It

was at this period and under the influence of this agent, that the commissioners instructed Colonel Fullerton to suspend hostilities, and evacuate his conquests; but he had just heard of the perfidious violation of the convention of Mangalore, and though he ceased to prosecute the war, determined to retain the districts he had conquered. Discussions soon after arose between the envoy of Tippoo and the commissioners, regarding the release of the prisoners and the surrender of Mangalore, which were referred to Lord Macartney. On the 8th of December the Council met and reviewed their position, their finances were ruined, their credit was broken, and the confidence of the Supreme Government was gone. But, instead of ordering Colonel Fullerton with his powerful army to push on to Tippoo's capital, while he was occupied at Mangalore, and end the war by one bold stroke, they directed him to relinquish all his conquests, and retire within the limits which they prescribed although Tippoo's officers had violated their engagements, and retained all the districts they had overrun in the Carnatic, which they were equally bound to evacuate. The missionary Swartz met Colonel Fullerton at the foot of the ghauts as he was marching back, and exclaimed with astonishment, "Is the peace so certain that you quit all before the negotiation is ended? The possession of these two countries would have kept Tippoo in awe, and inclined him to reasonable terms. But you quit the reins, and how will you manage the beast?" The Colonel replied, I cannot help it. Hastings, with his profound knowledge of the native character reprobated the negotiation and considered that it should have been entrusted to Colonel Fullerton, and conducted at the head of his army, at the capital. But Hastings was now comparatively powerless. The Court of Directors, a prey to intrigue, had recently renewed their condemnation of his conduct, his own Council deserted him. Lord Macartney set him at defiance, and the negotiations with Tippoo were left to the mismanagement of Madras. The commissioners were marched leisurely thro' the country,

protect the natives from the oppression of Europeans, and to give the English community the blessing of their own laws. The judges were invested with the attributes of the twelve judges in Westminster, and empowered to administer English law in all its branches. Parliament had thus, without any correct knowledge of the circumstances or wants of the new conquest, established two independent powers, but had neglected to define the sphere of their authority, and a collision between the government of the Company and the judicial officers of the Crown, became inevitable. One of the earliest acts of the Court was to hang Dunda loomar for an offence which had not been capital since the days of Munoo. The next blow fell on the zamindars. The country was slowly recovering from the confusion incident to the introduction of a novel and foreign administration, and the zemindars were but partially reconciled to the new economy. The Supreme Court, as soon as it was established, began to issue writs against them, at the suit of any one who could see an attorney, on the strength of which they were immediately seized in their own cutchenes, or rent courts, and dragged down to Calcutta from a distance, sometimes, of several hundred miles, and consigned to jail if they were unwilling, or unable, to furnish bail. No indemnification was given to them for the expense or disgrace they had incurred even when their arrest was cancelled for illegality. Of English law, then the most complicated system of jurisprudence in the world, they were profoundly ignorant, and they felt that no innocence and no ingenuity was able to protect them from the new dangers which menaced them. A dark cloud hung over the country, as portentous as a Mahratta invasion.

The Court's  
Interference  
with the  
Government,  
1773 &c.

These proceedings necessarily affected the collection of the revenue, and endangered the resources of government. The disposition to withhold every payment, however just, is inherent in the native character and the slightest pretext is sufficient to develope it. The arrest and humiliation of the

zemindars destroyed their credit and authority, and gave their unscrupulous ryots an advantage they were not slow to improve. It had, moreover, been the immemorial custom in India to subject defaulters to coercion, without which they rarely paid their rents, but the attorneys of the Supreme Court, who had spread themselves over the country, advised the ryots and renters when arrested, to sue out a writ of *habeas corpus*, when they were brought down to Calcutta and discharged, leaving the landlord without rent or remedy. The criminal judicature of the country, which embraced the police of thirty millions of people, had been left in the hands of the Nahoo of Moorshedabad and his judicial and executive officers. But the authority of their courts was at once annihilated by the judges of the Supreme Court, who declared that the person called Mobarik ood dowlah, that is, the Nahoo of Moorshedabad, was a phantom, a mere man of straw, without any legal right to the exercise of any power whatsoever. In one instance, indeed, the Court proceeded so far as to issue a process of contempt against his Highness. The next blow was aimed at the government itself, though it had been established under the authority of Parliament. The judges refused to acknowledge the East India Company except as a trading body, with no other power or position than an ordinary commercial association. They interpreted the Act to signify that the government of the country by the Governor General in Council was subject to the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court, and that it would be penal for the Company, or any of its servants, to disobey any order or process emanating from it. There was no department of the state with which they did not see fit to interfere, the whole fabric of the administration was shaken to its base, and the country was threatened with universal anarchy, simply to enlarge the jurisdiction of the Crown court, and to exalt the authority of its judges.

claims gave rise would exceed the limits of this epitome, and one must suffice as a sample. A baboo named Cossinath was instigated to bring an action in the Supreme Court in August, 1779, against his master, the raja of Cossijurah, lying to the south of Calcutta. A writ was issued on the strength of his affidavit, and the raja was required to find bail to the extent of three lacs and a half of rupees. He concealed himself to avoid the process, upon which the Court immediately despatched two sheriff's officers, with a body of eighty six men, of whom thirteen were European sailors, and the rest natives habited as sepoyes, and all armed with muskets or swords. On their arrival at Cossijurah, they forced their way into the palace of the raja, maltreated his servants, violated the sanctity of the zenana, and desecrated his family temple, picking up the idol with other lumber in a basket, and affixing the seal of the Court to it. Hastings considered that the time had at length arrived when he could no longer delay to vindicate the authority of the government, and afford protection to the natives, whatever might be the hazard attending it. He instructed the military officer at Madras to intercept the whole party on their return, and march them to Calcutta, where they were immediately liberated. To prevent similar outrages which were then meditated, he likewise issued a proclamation, directing all landholders of every degree to consider themselves exempt from the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court, except in the two cases of their having bound themselves by agreement to submit to it, or being British subjects. The Supreme Court then proceeded to issue a summons against the Governor General himself and the members of the Supreme Council, but they peremptorily refused to obey it.

See E. Impey  
and the Sadler  
Court, 180.

Petitions were now addressed to Parliament by both Europeans and natives, praying for a redress of these intolerable grievances. But as the remedy might be long in coming, the sagacity of Hastings discovered a more immediate antidote. The Provincial Coun-

cils established in 1773, held both revenue and civil courts, and an appeal from their decisions lay to the Sudder Dewanny Adawlut, or chief court of appeal in Calcutta, in which the Governor General and the Council were appointed to preside, which, however, their political and administrative duties seldom allowed them to do. In April, 1780, Hastings remodelled the whole system, separated the fiscal from the civil jurisdiction, leaving the former with the Provincial courts, and entrusting the latter to the civil courts which he established in each district, with an appeal to the Sudder Dewanny. He then offered the post of chief judge of this court to Sir Elijah Impey, upon a salary of 7 000 rupees a month, which was accepted without any hesitation. This appointment, together with that of another of the Crown judges as Commissioner of the Dutch settlement of Chinsurah, which had been recently captured at once quelled the Supreme Court, and released the Government from its embarrassments.

Remarks on this arrangement at, 1780 The position in which this arrangement placed the Chief Justice, proved highly advantageous to the interests of the country. The judges of the new civil courts who were young and inexperienced, were placed under his supervision and guidance, and he was thus enabled to give form and consistency to the system of civil judicature. Though bred in all the technicalities of English law, he drew up a code of regulations for the administration of justice in the interior, comprised in ninety five sections, brief and clear, and exactly adapted to the simplicity of native habits, and it has formed the basis of all subsequent legislation at the Bengal Presidency. But this arrangement was assailed with great animosity, both in the Court of Directors and in the House of Commons. Sir Elijah was recalled for having accepted the office, and Hastings was eventually impeached in addition to the other crimes charged against him for having conferred it. But, after the lapse of eighty years the wisdom of this proceeding has been triumphantly vindicated by the Parliamentary enactment of 1860, which



placed the Chief justice of the Supreme Court at the head of the Company's Court of Appeal, and by amalgamating the two Courts, committed to him the duty of supervising the judicial system of the Presidency. On the receipt of the petitions from Calcutta before alluded to Parliament passed an Act in which the functions of the Supreme Court were more distinctly defined and it continued from that period to the hour of its extinction, to enjoy the confidence and admiration of the entire community, European and native, for the equity and impartiality of its decisions.

Cheynt Sing's  
decease  
1780.

The pecuniary difficulties of the government of Bengal were at this time most critical. There was war with Hyder, who was triumphant in the Carnatic, war with the French with the Dutch and with the Mahrattas. The entire expense of all these wars fell upon the treasury in Bengal: a debt of a crore of rupees had been incurred, and the credit of Government was at the lowest ebb. Hastings was under the necessity of looking to other sources than the ordinary revenues of the country for supplies and he was induced to make an additional demand on Cheynt Sing, the raja of Benares. The grandfather of the raja had begun life with the rent of half a village, but amidst the distraction of the times, had succeeded in acquiring a territory which yielded 50 lacs of rupees a year. The district was transferred by the Nabob Vizier to the British government in 1775, and the rajah received a sunnud from the Governor General, which stipulated that his annual tribute should be limited to twenty-two lacs and a half a year. Hastings's demand was therefore stigmatised by his opponents as a breach of faith. But the tenure of Benares was more than that of a feudatory than of a mere zemindar, which appears evident from the fact that Hastings when irritated by his opposition, threatened to reduce him to the condition of a simple zemindar like the raja of Burdwan. By the law and constitution of India he was liable in cases of emergency, to be called on for extraordinary aids by his superior lord. Such payments had formerly been

made\* to his liege, the Nabob of Oude, and he was equally bound to meet the requisition made upon him on the present emergency by Hastings, of 2,000 horse and five lacs of rupees. The rajah pleaded poverty, and endeavoured to evade the payment of the full amount, but Hastings had received intimation from various quarters that his hoards exceeded two crores of rupees, and he persuaded himself that the rajah's reluctance, to comply with his demands, was a crime. He determined, therefore, "to make him pay largely for his pardon, to exact a severe vengeance for his delinquency, and to draw from his guilt the means of relief to the Company's distresses."

Hastings was about to proceed to Benares to meet the vakeel of the raja of Berar, and negotiate a peace with the Regency at Poona. Chettybhai was fully apprised of his resentment and hastened to avert it by waiting on him as he entered the province, and humbly beseeching him to accept twenty lacs of rupees. The offer was rejected with scorn, and the sum of fifty lacs peremptorily demanded. On his arrival at Benares on the 15th of August, 1781, Hastings sent the raja a statement of his complaints, and placed him under arrest, by sending four companies of sepoys to take the place of his own guards. The city of Benares, the citadel of Hindooism, and the great focus of political intrigue, had always been notorious for its turbulence. On the present occasion, the populace roused by the indignity inflicted on the raja rose upon the sepoys who had brought no ammunition with them, and slaughtered both them and their officers. During this *emeute*, the raja himself escaped across the river to his fortified place at Ramnugur. The situation of Hastings was perilous in the extreme, the native force on which he depended for protection was annihilated, and he, and the thirty gentlemen with him had only their own weapons to trust to. Happily the infuriated retainers of the raja crowded tumultuously after him, and quitted the city, instead of attacking Hastings in his

defenceless state. The whole province was speedily in a blaze of revolt, and the zemindars of Behar, who had ever been disaffected towards the English, were ripe for insurrection. It was at this critical period, while beleaguered in Benares, that Hastings exhibited his rare strength of nerve, by continuing and completing his negotiations with Sindia, as if he had been tranquilly residing in Calcutta. Equally remarkable was the confidence that Sindia manifested in the destinies of the English, by affixing his seal to the treaty, while he knew that the life of the Governor General was in jeopardy. His situation at Benares, notwithstanding the rapid arrival of troops from different quarters, was not, however, considered defensible, and he made his escape during the night, by a window, and rowed down to Chunar.

Capture of Bidjagar 30th Nov., 1811. The raja collected a force of 20 000 men but did not cease to importune Hastings for a reconciliation, which was wisely rejected, lest it should be attributed to fear. The raja's troops were successively defeated, and he took refuge in Bidjagar, but not deeming himself safe there, fled to Bundelcund with as much treasure as his elephants and camels could carry. The begums, who were left behind, surrendered the fortress on the 9th of November. In a private letter to the commander of the troops, in reference to the treasure which was supposed to be deposited in Bidjagar, Hastings had incautiously remarked "With regard to the booty, that is rather your consideration than mine. I should be sorry that any of your officers and soldiers lost any part of the reward to which they are so well entitled." On the strength of this communication, the officers proceeded at once to divide the booty, amounting to forty lacs of rupees, among themselves and the troops. Hastings was especially mortified at the loss of the treasure with which he had hoped to replenish the empty treasury of the Company. The officers were invited to return it, and to leave their claims to the equitable decision of the Supreme Council but they manifested their discretion by refusing to

trust their interests to the arbitrement of a pauper government. In extenuation of the odious proceedings of Hastings towards Cheyt Sing, it was asserted that he was disaffected to the British Government, but, in this case, Hastings would not have ventured to enter the capital with so slender an escort. Cheyt Sing was culpable in having hesitated to afford immediate aid to his liege sovereign in a great public exigency, but the imposition of a fine of fifty lacs of rupees for withholding payment of one-tenth of the sum, had an aspect of vindictiveness which it is impossible to palliate; and although Hastings was so blinded by his own judgment as to claim merit for the transaction, it has always been considered a dark spot in his administration, and it will hereafter appear that it was on this point that the question of his impeachment eventually turned. Cheyt Sing enjoyed an asylum at Gwahor for twenty nine years. His nephew was raised to the throne, and the tribute augmented from twenty-two and a half to forty lacs a year.

The regens of  
Oude, 1780.

The disappointment which Hastings had experienced regarding these treasures increased his embarrassment. The treasury in Calcutta was drained for the support of more than sixty thousand troops required for the war at Bombay and Madras, and money was indispensable. It was in these circumstances that the Nabob vizier waited on him at Chunar, and represented the impossibility of making good from his exhausted country the arrears of a crore and a half of rupees due to the Company, and of continuing to maintain the English troops stationed in his dominions. But these troops were indispensably necessary to their defence, and the withdrawal of them would have been immediately followed by a Mahagatta invasion. He entreated Hastings to relieve him from the charge of at least one brigade, and to allow him to take possession of the wealth and the jaygeers of the regens, to enable him to discharge his obligations to the Company. Hastings subsequently assumed that if the Vizier had not made this proposal, he himself would never

succession, or the practice of Oriental courts. As to the barbarities practised on the *begums* and their servants by the Nabob, Hastings cannot be held personally answerable for them, the odium which they have fixed on his administration, was the revenge of civilization for an alliance with barbarism, for a most objectionable object.

Fyzoolla Khan, the Rohilla chieftain, was, in 1780

1774, left in possession of Rampoorah and several other jagheers, of the annual value of fifteen lacs of rupees. He devoted his attention with great zeal to the encouragement of agriculture and the improvement of the country, and with such success as to double his rent roll in seven years, without overtaxing his subjects. He was bound by treaty not to increase his military force beyond 5 000 men, of whom 3,000 were to be at the disposal of the Nabob vizier, when he happened to be engaged in war. In November, 1780, Hastings, distracted by the intelligence of Colonel Bhaliss's defeat, instructed the Vizier to demand the aid of 5 000 troops for the defence of Behar, to liberate the English regiments for service at Madras. Fyzoolla Khan, with all humility, made an offer of 2,000 horse and 1,000 foot. Hastings, who always expected prompt obedience to his requisitions, was exasperated at this hesitation, and under the alarm created by Cheyt Sing's proceedings, assented without adequate consideration, to the request made by the Vizier to dispossess Fyzoolla Khan of the whole of his zemindary and annex it to his own dominions. But he soon after discovered and acknowledged the error he had committed in this interpretation of the treaty, revoked the permission he had given to the Vizier and released Fyzoolla Khan from the obligation of furnishing any quota of troops in future, on the payment of fifteen lacs of rupees.

Censure of the Directors. These proceedings were severely condemned by the Court of Directors who pronounced the design, 1783—8. *mand an Cheyt Sing, a breach of faith and ordered him to be restored to his estates.* Under the in

fluence of this vote of censure Hastings's colleagues in Council not only withdrew their support from him, but became united in their opposition to him, and he complained, with great reason that while he was still held responsible for the safety of India, his degradation had been proclaimed at every court in India. "If," he said, "I am to be threatened with dismission, my acts reproached, the whole responsibility of the government thrown on me, with only an equal voice in Council, I cannot discharge my trust with credit or effect." In a letter to the Court of Directors of the 20th of March, 1783, after appealing to them to attest the patience and temper with which he had submitted to all the indignities heaped upon him during his long service, he announced his determination to quit their service, and requested that a successor might be immediately nominated. During the year 1784 he proceeded to Lucknow, and in compliance with the requisition of the Court of Directors, restored the jaygeers to the begums, through the agency of the Nabob vizier. He adjusted all accounts between Oude and the Company, made every arrangement for the payment of the English troops employed in its defence, and then withdrew the Residency, which had become odious to the Vizier by its interference with his government, not less than by its depredations. On his return to Calcutta, Hastings addressed valedictory letters to all the princes and chiefs of India, and having laid the keys of the treasury on the table of the Council Board, and delivered the keys of the fort to his successor, Mr Macpherson, embarked for England in February, 1785, after a most eventful administration of thirteen years.

Hastings reached England on the 13th of June 1785, and experienced the most gracious reception from the King and Queen and even the Court of Directors greeted him with a courteous address. By one of the most influential members of the House of Lords, he was described as the Company's great minister—the powerful Chatham of

the 1st The Ministry, with one exception, evinced the most friendly disposition towards him, and the preeminent services he had rendered to his country in the last fully justified his expectations of a peerage. But that exception was fatal to all his hopes. Mr Pitt, the prime minister, had imbibed a vehement prejudice against him. He admitted that he was a great and wonderful man, and that the charges against him were ridiculous and absurd, but, he had committed four transgressions—he had attempted to extend the British dominions in India, which the minister highly disapproved of, he had forfeited the confidence of the native princes, he had disobeyed the orders of the Court of Directors, and he had fixed enormous salaries to offices in India. There was, moreover, an adverse resolution on the records of the House of Commons, and until it was done away with by a vote of *thanks for his great services*, Mr Pitt affirmed that he could not advise his Majesty to confer any honour on him, yet the minister's favourite colleague, Mr Dundas, with whom that damatory vote originated, had subsequently declared, that Hastings's conduct was worthy of every praise he could bestow, and of every support his Majesty's ministers could afford him, and he went so far as expressly to pronounce him the saviour of India. As to the vote of thanks, Mr Pitt had only to propose it to the House, and it would have been carried by acclamation.

Commencement  
of his impeachment,  
20th  
June 1785.

Seven days after Hastings landed in England, Mr Burke, one of the most distinguished leaders of the Whigs, gave notice in the House of Commons that he would on a future day, make a motion regarding the conduct of a gentleman recently returned from India. But a meeting of the party was held soon after, and it was resolved, with great unanimity, to be unadvisable to embark in a crusade against him. There was therefore every reason to conclude that the menace of a prosecution would have blown over, but for the imprudence and arrogance of Major John Scott, the confidential agent and

evil genius of Hastings. Like other retired Indians of ample fortune he had purchased a borough and entered Parliament. On the first day of the ensuing session of 1786, he rose and defied Burke to make good his threat. After this challenge, Burke had no option but to pursue his intention, and he entered upon the impeachment with all the ardour of his enthusiastic nature. His political associates, who had been lukewarm on the subject, felt themselves bound in honour to rally round and support him, and this celebrated trial is thus traced up to the mistaken zeal of Hastings's own friend, Major Scott, who emphatically "bullied" Burke into the prosecution. His first motion was for the production of papers, but the House resolved, that he should state his case before he applied for documents to support it.

Charges against  
Hastings, 4th  
April, 1786.

On the 4th of April, Burke brought forward eleven charges, to which eleven others were subsequently added. For many years he had made the politics and the people of India and their ancient history his particular study, and no man in the House has ever been more familiar with all questions relating to that country. He was a worshipping of ancient institutions and dynasties, and having followed the career of Hastings step by step, gradually contracted a feeling of personal animosity towards him, for his attempts to subvert them in the East. But all the materials of the charges were supplied by Mr Francis, Hastings's rancorous opponent in India, who had obtained a seat in Parliament, and determined to hunt him down with all the rancour which might have been expected from the writer of Junius's letters. After the charges had been introduced, Hastings obtained permission to be heard in reply, and on the 1st of May appeared at the bar, bending beneath the weight of a document more prolix than even a Bengal dispatch. He read or till he was exhausted, when the clerks of the House came to his aid and mumbled through its interminable pages, the reading of which required a second day. The only impression produced on the House was one of weariness.



ness and impatience, yet so ignorant was Hastings of English sensibilities as to persuade himself that the plea of the reply was conceived in a happy hour, and by a blessed inspiration, and that "it instantly turned all minds to his own way."

Of the twenty-two charges, only three were of any serious importance, and they referred to the first Rohilla war, to Cheyt Sing, and to the begums of Oude. The rest—such as that of having in six revolutions, brought the fertile and beautiful provinces of Iurruckabad to a state of the most deplorable ruin, and of having impoverished and depopulated Oude, and rendered the country, which was once a garden, an uninhabited desert,—were the mere litter of Mr Francis's malignity. The first charge accused him of having "hired British soldiers for the purpose of extirpating the innocent and helpless people inhabiting the Rohillas." But the first Rohilla war had received the approbation of the Court of Directors, it had taken place fourteen years before, and whatever might have been its criminality, Parliament had condoned it by subsequently reappointing Hastings Governor General. Mr Dundas explained that when he proposed a vote of censure to the House on this transaction, he considered it sufficient for the recall of Hastings, but he had never supposed that it involved the necessity of a prosecution. Both he and Mr Pitt voted against the charge, and it was consequently negatived by 119 to 67. The charge of wanton cruelty and extortion against the raja of Benares, was brought forward by Fox, in a speech of surpassing ability, but he rested his argument solely on the principle that Cheyt Sing was an independent prince, no way liable to be called on for succour by the Bengal Government. Mr Pitt, who was expected to support Hastings in this case also, resisted this opinion, and asserted that Cheyt Sing was a vassal of the Bengal empire, and owed allegiance to it, and was subject to extraordinary demands on extraordinary emergencies. But, he added the whole of Hastings's conduct showed that he intended to punish the raja with too much severity inflicting

a fine of fifty lacs for a default of only five lacs. He voted, therefore, for the motion, which was carried by 119 to 79.

\*The adoption of this charge by the Ministry, was the turning point of the impeachment, which, after this decision, became inevitable. The third important charge, which referred to the confiscation of the treasures and estates of the begums of Oude, was entrusted to Mr Sheridan and the speech of six hours' duration with which he introduced it, has been justly considered the greatest effort of oratory in ancient and modern times. Mr Pitt, himself, described it as possessing everything that genius or art could furnish to agitate and control the human mind. The House was enraptured by his eloquence, and gave an unusual sign of applause by clapping of hands, in which even the strangers were allowed to join without rebuke. The debate was adjourned to the next day, on the extraordinary plea that, under spell of the orator, the members had lost their self-possession. When the House resumed, Mr Pitt came forward and asserted that Hastings's conduct regarding the treasures of the begums bore the strongest marks of criminality, though he did not impute to him the cruelties said to have been practised. After this declaration the charge was supported by a majority of three to one. It was therefore resolved that Warren Hastings should be impeached before the Lords of high crimes and misdemeanours during the period of his Indian government and as the Lords refused the use of their own chamber, Westminster Hall was ordered to be fitted up for the occasion.

Trial of  
Hastings  
—1793. The trial which commenced on the 13th of February, 1793, presented the most august

spectacle which had been witnessed in England for more than a century—the impeachment by the Commons of England before the highest tribunal in the land of the man who had consolidated the power of Great Britain in the East. The scene was one of unexampled dignity and grandeur. The Queen and the Princesses, the Prince of Wales, and his royal brothers, with their trains, led the procession.

The peers in their ermine, were marshalled two and two according to their rank from their own chamber to the hall. But the most interesting spectacle was the galaxy of genius\* grouped together in the seats appropriated to the managers of the trial—Fox, and Burke, and Sheridan, and Grey, and Windham, men of imperishable renown in the annals of their country. In the presence of this illustrious assembly, Warren Hastings, who had given law to the princes and people of India for thirteen years, appeared in the position of a culprit, and was required to go down upon his knees. He was immediately commanded to rise, and accommodated with a seat, but of all the indignities which had been heaped on him in England or in India, this ignominious ceremonial was that which most acutely wounded his feelings. The Lord Chancellor, who presided in the Court, and who had been his own school fellow at Westminster, concluded his address with much solemnity, "Conduct your defence in a manner that may besit your station and the magnitude of the charges against you, and estimate rightly the high character of those you have to answer—the Commons of Great Britain." To which Hastings replied with great dignity, "I am come to this high tribunal, equally impressed with a confidence in my own integrity, and in the justice of the Court before which I stand." The pleadings were opened by Burke in a speech of such transcendent power, that Hastings himself was carried away by the torrent of eloquence, and remarked that for half an hour he really considered himself the greatest miscreant in England. The management of the impeachment, for any detail of which, however, it is not possible to find space in this brief sketch, was left by Mr Pitt in the hands of his opponents the Whigs, and it was conducted in a spirit of rancour, which in this age of moderation, is regarded with amazement. The whole proceeding is inseparably connected with the traditions and the credit of that party, and hence, after the lapse of three quarters of a century, its political chief still considers that the "whole of Hastings's policy was

conceived in an Indian spirit of trick, perfidy, cruelty and falsehood" To acquit Hastings of criminality would necessarily imply the severest reflection on the conduct of those who applied to him the epithets of "thief," "tyrant," "robber," "cheat," "swindler," "sharper," "captain general of iniquity," and "spider of hell," and then expressed their regret that the English language did not afford terms more adequate to the enormity of his offences. The trial dragged on for seven years, and terminated on the 23rd of April, 1795, in his complete and honourable acquittal. It cost him ten lacs of rupees, and reduced him to poverty, but it has conferred immortality on his name.

Character and  
administration  
of Hastings.

No man acting on so great a theatre, and in circumstances of such extreme difficulty has ever had his public conduct, and his private correspondence subjected to an ordeal like that to which Hastings was exposed, and there are few who could have come out of it with such credit. In the opinion of the ablest, though most censorious of the historians of British India, "He was beyond all question the most eminent of the chief rulers whom the Company has ever employed, nor is there any one of them who would not have succumbed under the difficulties he had to encounter." The impartial verdict of posterity has long since acquitted him of the crimes charged on him. That he was not free from blame, the preceding narrative has abundantly shown, but his offences are cast into the shade when we contemplate the grandeur of his whole career, and we may adopt the opinion of one of the most eminent statesmen of the day, "Though he was not blameless if there was a bald place on his head it ought to be covered with laurels." His presidency was a great epoch in the history of our Indian empire. On his arrival in Bengal as governor, he found the Company in possession of a large and fertile territory, but without any rule of government except that which had descended to it from its commercial institutions, and no rule of policy but that which the accident of the

day supplied. It was he who organised the administration and consolidated the political power of the British empire in the East. While he was anxious to avoid territorial acquisitions, he set his heart on extending our political influence to every court, and making the Company the leading power in India, and the arbiter of its destinies. This task he accomplished while opposed and thwarted by his colleagues, counteracted and reviled by his superiors, and enjoying but accidental and temporary authority.\* While the king of England and his ministers were losing an empire in the west, he was building upon an empire in the east. To the natives of India his imperachment was an incomprehensible enigma. They had followed him to his embarkation with their regrets, and when he had been deprived of all power, and had become the butt of persecution, the princes of India, whose confidence he was said to have forfeited, hastened to offer him the spontaneous homage of their admiration. Nor to this day is he regarded in India in any other light than as one of the most moderate and most honourable, as well as the ablest of British rulers.

Select and  
secret Com-  
mittees, 1781—  
82.

The exclusive privileges granted to the East India Company were to expire upon three years' notice, after the 25th of March, 1786, and negotiations were therefore opened between the India house and the Treasury, towards the close of that year, which turned chiefly on two points, the right of the Crown to all territories acquired by its subjects, and the share due to the public of the advantages which the Company enjoyed. On the 9th of April, 1781, Lord North brought forward eight propositions in the House of Commons relative to the government of India, so unpalatable that the Court of Directors refused to apply for the renewal of the Charter on such terms. But the Company was strong in the House and in the country, while the Ministry was tottering. A compromise was, therefore, effected between the parties. The question of right to the territories acquired in India was left in abeyance, and the existing privileges were extended with scarcely any modifica-

tion to a period of three years, after notice had been given on the 1st of March, 1791. The Company was likewise required to pay to the Treasury the sum of forty lacs of rupees in lieu of all arrears due to the nation, and three fourths of their surplus profits, after the payment of a dividend of eight per cent, were to go to the state. In February of the year 1781, the petitions, formerly mentioned, from the inhabitants of Calcutta against the encroachments of the Supreme Court were presented to the House, and it was agreed to refer them to a Select Committee, of which Mr Burke was the life and soul, and which is remembered by the twelve able reports drawn up by his pen and submitted to Parliament. It was these reports which for the first time diffused through the community in England a distinct view of the origin and progress of our rule in India, and of the importance of the national interests which had grown up. On the receipt of the intelligence of Hyder Ali's irruption into the Carnatic, the Minister moved for the appointment of a Secret Committee to inquire into the cause of the war, and the state of the British possessions on that coast. Six reports were presented by this Committee, through its chairman, Mr Dundas.

Not on for the  
recall of  
Hastings, 182.

On the 9th of April 1783, Mr Dundas moved that the reports be referred to a Committee of the whole House, and in a speech of three hours duration, denounced the conduct of the Presidencies in India, whom he charged with having plunged the nation into wars for the sake of conquest, violated the engagement of treaties and plundered and oppressed the natives. He censured the Court of Directors for reprobating the conduct of their servants abroad only when it was not attended with profit. The House at once adopted the charges brought against Sir Thomas Pumbold, the late governor of Madras, and a bill of pains and penalties was introduced but in consequence of the unsettled state of parties, it dropped through leaving the black stain of his iniquities still attached to his character.

On the 30th of May, 1782, Mr Dundas moved for the recall of Mr Hastings from Bengal, and Mr Hornby from Bombay, for having in sundry instances acted in a manner repugnant to the honour and policy of the nation, and thereby brought great calamities on India, and enormous expenses on the Company. The House voted Hastings's recall, the Court of Directors followed the example, but the Court of Proprietors, which at this time comprised men of high standing and great eminence in the country, resolved that the Court of Directors was not bound to pay any attention to the suggestions of only one branch of the legislature, and passed a vote of thanks to Hastings. This act of independence, which was resented by both parties in the House, sealed the doom of that Court. Mr Dundas declared it to be dangerous in principle and insulting to the authority of Parliament, and when he came into power two years subsequently, assisted in giving a death blow to its power.

FOX'S INDIA  
BILL, 1783.

The pecuniary embarrassments in which the Company was involved by the bills drawn for the expenses of the war in the Carnatic, damaged their position in no small degree. On the 5th of March they presented a petition to the House stating that of the sum exacted of them for the benefit of the nation, they had paid thirty lacs, but were unable to find the remainder, though it was only ten lacs, and moreover, that they could not carry on the government of India for another twelvemonth, without the loan of a crore of rupees. Two Acts were passed for their relief, but this application, combined with the reports of the two Committees, and the damaging debates in the House, produced a deep impression on the public mind and there was a general demand for some measure commensurate with the importance and exigency of the case. Mr Fox, then at the head of the Opposition Ministry, was urged by the national voice to legislate for India, and he consequently brought forward his celebrated India Bill. Both Clive and Hastings had recommended to the Prime Ministers of the day,

to Lord Chatham and Lord North, that the government of India should be conducted in the name and under the authority of the king. But Mr Fox's Bill went much further. He proposed that all the powers of government should be transferred for a period of four years, from the Company to a Board consisting of seven Commissioners, to be nominated in the first instance by Parliament, and afterwards by the Crown. The trade of the Company was to be managed by nine assistant directors, to be eventually chosen by the proprietors of India Stock. Another Bill was likewise introduced for the reform of abuses in India, but its provisions were without vigour or soundness. A hobby of Mr Francis was also adopted, and the zemindars were declared to be the hereditary proprietors of the lands of which they collected the revenue. As regarded making war or alliances with the native powers, the supreme authority in India was to be placed under more severe restrictions, and rendered more subordinate than before to the Board of Commissioners, fourteen thousand miles off, in England.

Defeat of Fox's  
India Bill,  
1784.

The motives of Mr Fox, in the introduction of this bill, were pure and benevolent. He really believed that it was his mission 'to rescue the greatest number of the human race that ever were so grievously oppressed from the greatest tyranny that ever was exercised. But the bill was considered dangerous to the liberties of the nation. The patronage of India was estimated to be worth two crores of rupees a year, and as the principle of competitive appointments had not then been discovered, it was believed that the transfer of it to the Crown or to the minister would destroy the balance of the constitution. It was therefore opposed by many from the most patriotic motives. The Court of Directors, threatened with extinction, filled the country with their complaints, and asserted that after such a violation of chartered rights, no constitution in England was secure. The cry was echoed in the city thirty or forty years of those whom the spoils of the East or the



jobs of the India house, had lifted into the senate, and who presented a firm phalanx of opposition to a bill which cut off their children and connections from the prospect of similar fortunes. Every engine was set in motion to defeat this measure, yet it passed the lower House by a triumphant majority of 208 to 102. But the king had been alarmed by the assurance, that it would take the diadem from his head, and place it on the brows of Mr Fox. He, therefore, adopted the unconstitutional course of authorizing Earl Temple to inform the peers, that he should consider any one who voted for it as no friend of his. The House of Lords therefore threw out the bill, and at midnight the king sent a messenger to the ministers, whom he cordially hated, to announce their dismissal.

Mr Pitt's India  
Bill 1834

Mr William Pitt, then twenty four years of age, was placed at the head of the new ministry, and, after struggling for several months with an adverse House of Commons, at length appealed to the country, and obtained a majority of 160. The East India Company, then the most powerful corporation in England, had assisted him with their influence at the elections, and their interests were not forgotten when he was in power. Their chief revenue was derived from the monopoly of the tea trade. They were in arrears for duty to the extent of a crore of rupees, which they asked him to remit. The duty of 50 per cent then levied on the importation of the article, gave encouragement to smuggling, and thereby diminished the resources of the Company. Mr Pitt reduced it to 12½ per cent, and endeavoured to make up the loss of sixty lacs of rupees which it entailed, by an increase of the very objectionable tax on windows and light. On the 18th of August he introduced his India Bill in a speech in which he denounced, in no equivocal terms, the misconduct of the governors in India. He had before him the three plans for the improvement of the government, which had been drawn up during the previous three years by Lord North, Mr Dundas and Mr Fox, from each of which he

borrowed some of the materials of his own bill. He proposed the appointment of a Board of Commissioners, consisting of six members of the Privy Council, with power to check, superintend and control, all the acts, operations and concerns, connected with the civil and military government, and the revenues of India. The Court of Directors were to submit to the Commissioners, not only the letters received from India, as before, but all those which were transmitted by them. All despatches and orders dictated by the Board were to be implicitly obeyed. At the same time a committee of secrecy was constituted, consisting of three Directors, through whom all important communications from the Board were to be sent, an interior cabinet was thus established at the India House, which excluded twenty one of the Directors from all share of political power. The Court of Proprietors, which had recently set the House of Commons at defiance was restricted from interfering with any of the decisions of the Board, and was thus reduced to utter insignificance. Two other provisions were inserted, the one to compel every officer returning from India to deliver a schedule of the property he had acquired, the other to establish a separate and august tribunal in England, for the trial of great delinquents. But these anomalous enactments were speedily abrogated. It was also declared in this bill that the pursuit of schemes of conquest was repugnant to the wish to the honour and the policy of the British nation, and it was therefore enacted, 'that it should not be lawful for the Governor General without the express authority and concord of the Court of Directors, or of the Secret Committee, either to declare or commence hostilities, or to enter into any treaty for making war against any of the native princes or states in India, or any treaty guaranteeing the dominions of such princes or states, except when hostilities should have been commenced, or preparations actually made for the attack of the British nation in India, or of some of the states and princes whose dominions it shall be engaged by subsisting treaties to defend.' How far this attempt to stop the growth

of the British empire by Act of Parliament was successful, will be seen in the course of this history •

*Comparison of the Bills, 1784* It is difficult to account satisfactorily for the reprobation of Mr Fox's bill, and the commendation bestowed on that of Mr Pitt. In both the monopoly of the trade to India and China was left to the Company, and the Directors were to be chosen by the Proprietors. The object of both was the same, to deprive the Court of Directors of all power in the government of India, and transfer it to the Ministry of the day, by whom, in both cases, the Commissioners were to be appointed, for the Crown meant its responsible Ministers. But, then, Mr Pitt left to the Company the semblance of power while he imperceptibly took away the reality. He left the Court of Directors all the trappings of greatness, their grand house, their magnificent banquet, and their vast patronage, they were still the grandest corporation in the grandest city of the world, but, there was the check-offing behind the machinery, which controlled all its movements. From the passing of this bill in 1784, to the period when, in 1858, Mr Fox's plan was consummated, and the government of India distinctly transferred to the Crown, the administration of India was conducted under the absolute control of the President of the Board, though in the name of the Company. The government of India was a despotism at home, and a despotism abroad. The Indian Minister was, it is true, responsible to Parliament, but the responsibility became a farce, when the members rushed out of the house at the name of India. Mr Dundas was appointed the first President of the Board and continued for sixteen years to manage the affairs of India with ability which has never been surpassed. The office has since been considered one of inferior importance and dignity, and, with occasional exceptions, has been left to second, and even third rate men. Indeed, there are few circumstances more striking in the history of our Indian empire, than the contrast presented by the brilliant genius of its successive Governors General, and the dull mediocrity of those who have presided over the government at home.

justice, and establishing a fund for their liquidation. Mr Pitt's India Bill contained the same enactment, and the Court of Directors entered upon the duty with great zeal, but before the close of 1781 Mr Dundas took the affair out of their hands, and determined to pay off the demands without any investigation whatever. To determine the order of payment he divided them into three classes, and directed that the sum of twelve lacs of pagodas should be annually appropriated to this object, giving the precedence, however, to the private debts, over the debt due to the Company. The Court of Directors remonstrated against this preposterous arrangement, and justly pleaded their prior right to the repayment of the expenses they had incurred, almost to their own bankruptcy, in defending the Carnatic from Hyder's invasion, and for which the Nabob had already made an assignment of seven lacs of pagodas a year. They reprobated the proposal to divert any portion of this sum to satisfy the demands of his fraudulent creditors. But the powers of government had passed out of their hands. The President of the Board of Control refused to reconsider his decision, and the subject was brought before the House in February, 1783. It was on this occasion that Mr Burke delivered his celebrated speech on the Nabob's debts, and consigned the Benfields, and the Atkinsons, and the whole crew of Madras extortioners, to everlasting infamy. He ascribed the singular course pursued by Mr Dundas to the exercise of Parliamentary influence. It appeared that Paul Benfield had been enabled to make no fewer than eight members at the recent election, from funds supplied by the Nabob of Arcot, and their votes were placed at the disposal of the Ministry. "This," exclaimed Mr Burke, "was the golden cup of abominations, this the chalice of the fornications of rapine, usury, and oppression, which was held out by the gorgeous eastern harlot, which so many of the people—so many of the nobles had drained to the very dregs." But so powerful was the Ministry in the House, that they did not condescend even to notice this brilliant speech. Mr Dundas's

two dark spots in our Indian administrations, and they appear all the more scandalous when contrasted with the general integrity and justice of our proceedings.

The revenues of the Carnatic, 1785

In the next question which Mr Dundas took in hand—the revenues of the Carnatic—his decision was equally unfortunate. The irruption of Hyder Ali into the province had constrained Hastings to demand an assignment of all the revenues of the Carnatic to provide for its defence, with the reservation of one sixth for the expenses of the Nabob. The Nabob was obliged to submit, but under the influence of his creditors, who refused to advance money without fresh *tumans*, he spared no exertion or artifice to defeat the arrangement, and at length sent an agent to Hastings to appeal against the measures of Lord Macartney. Hastings imprudently listened to his tale of wrong, and issued an order for the restitution of the assignment. The districts had been placed under the able management of a host of honest men, and had yielded a larger revenue than they had ever produced before, to surrender them to the Nabob would have reduced the Presidency to destitution at a time when the army was seven months in arrears. An angry discussion arose between Madras and Calcutta, but Lord Macartney at length succeeded in retrieving the revenues, and his conduct received the approbation of the Court of Directors. But Mr Dundas had not been many months at the head of the Board of Control before he ordered them to be peremptorily given back, on the ground that the war had ceased, and that ‘it was necessary to give to all the powers of India a strong proof of the national faith.’ The Nabob had received a much larger amount of ready money from the punctual payment of his share of the revenues than he had ever received before from the districts and he could therefore have no interest in resuming the management of them. But it was of the highest importance to his creditors, of whom Bel field was the representative, and, at the same time, the Nabob’s chief adviser in all such matters, to regain their hold

mitted his reasons to the Court of Directors the chief of which was that these landholders were endeavouring to baffle the Commissioners, and that the Court declared themselves perfectly satisfied with the course he had adopted. When the matter came under Parliamentary investigation it was attested by four witnesses that at the Madras Presidency transactions of this nature had always been conducted by the President himself, and subsequently communicated to the Board.

Regarding the bribe of a lac of rupees to his secretary, Mr Redhead by Sectaram raj it is shown that Mr Redhead never enjoyed the confidence of Sir Thomas and was dismissed within a few months of his arrival at Madras and died soon after. A paper was discovered among his effects which purported to be a translation from the original in the Gentoo language containing a promise on the part of Sectaram raj to pay him a lac of rupees on the performance of certain services. It was not attested by Sectaram or by Mr Redhead. His executors however sued the native for the amount in the Mayor's Court and obtained a decree, which was reversed on appeal by the President in Council. An attempt was made to implicate Sir Thomas in the odium of this transaction, but the counsel for the bill found that it could not be sustained and abandoned the charge.

It is stated in the histories of India that when Sir Thomas summoned the zemindars of the northern sircars to Madras Viziram raj the zemindar of Vizagapatnam, declined to obey the injunction, pleading the injury which his estates would suffer from his absence, but that his brother Sectaram raj hastened thither and succeeded in obtaining from Sir Thomas Rumbold the entire command of the zemindary in spite of his brother's remonstrances. The version of this affair given in these papers, and substantiated by documentary evidence presents it in a totally different aspect. Sectaram was the eldest son and the lawful heir of the principality, but under the pressure of palace intrigues was induced to relinquish his right to his brother and to consent to act as his dewan or steward in which capacity he managed the estates with such fidelity and benefit as in a few years to double the rent roll. A competitor at length succeeded in poisoning the mind of Viziram raj against his brother, and supplanted him in his office. Sectaram was at Madras seeking the intervention of the public authorities before the arrival of Sir Thomas who determined if possible to reconcile the brothers. The new dewan who was a defaulter to the extent of £90 000 was directed to proceed to the zemindary, and bring up his accounts. Sir Thomas embraced the opportunity of his absence which relieved Viziram from the spell of his influence, to make up the family quarrel. Sectaram was re-appointed dewan and continued to live in harmony with his brother and secured the punctual payment of the public revenue, and promoted the improvement of the family property.

The most important series of events elucidated by these documents is that which refers to the transfer of the Guatoor sircar which has been assumed, without question, as the cause of the confederacy formed to

of the Madras Council, and submitted to Mr Hastings, who made divers alterations, and then returned it to be carried into effect, with his full concurrence. A detachment of British troops was then sent to occupy the province, who were obliged to cross a corner of a district which Hyder had recently added to his dominions. The Court of Directors likewise commended the meritorious conduct of Sir Thomas in concluding the treaty.

The Nizam and Hyder resented this proceeding, but their indignation only served to demonstrate the wisdom and policy of it. The Nizam reproached his brother for having rented the sircar to the English, when he should have made it over to Hyder Ali. Hyder had resolved to oust Basalut Jung and take possession of the province, which would give him a position on the flank of the Carnatic, and a port on the Coromandel coast. He was irritated by the promptness with which this design was frustrated, and vowed that he would not allow the sircar to pass into the hands of "his old and bitter enemies." By a singular error, accidental or otherwise, the word "enemy" was substituted for "enemies," and the declaration was thus made to apply to Mubomed Ali, the nabob of the Carnatic, and not to the company whom Hyder always regarded with a feeling of rancorous hatred.

With regard to the tribute of seven lacs of rupees a year the papers state that it had fallen into arrears before the arrival of Sir Thomas Rumbold. The Nizam was pressing for payment, and the Madras Government had earnestly entreated the Governor General to assist them with funds to discharge it. The Madras Presidency was reduced to such a state of poverty, that when the troops had been paid for one month they knew not where to look for the next supply. Mr Holland was sent to Hyderabad, not to make a positive demand of remission to be eventually supported by violence, but to solicit a reduction of the sum, on the plea of poverty, and if the Nizam appeared to be propitious, to propose the entire relinquishment of it, coupled with certain propositions which it was thought would appear an equivalent for the sacrifice. If they were rejected, he was instructed to assure the Nizam that the current tribute, as well as the arrears, would be paid "as soon as they were in cash." Mr Holland found on his arrival, that the Nizam had taken the French force dismissed by Basalut Jung into his own service, which, considering that the English were then at war with the French, was a gross breach of the treaty, and the Governor of Madras strenuously remonstrated with the Nizam for openly protecting and encouraging the enemies of the Company. Mr Holland therefore informed him that the payment of the tribute would be made on his giving full satisfaction regarding the French troops.

The hostile confederacy formed by the Nizam is attributed by the historians to the irritation produced in the mind of the Nizam by the Guizoor transactions and the tribute negotiations. But the documents show that it was formed before they had occurred, and that this fact was admitted by the Governor-General himself. The

unjustifiable manner. The law officers of the Crown condemned these proceedings as unjust. Some of the more important allegations in the bill were abandoned and others broke down when brought to the test of evidence, and the bill itself was withdrawn twenty months after it had been presented, by a motion that it be read that day six months.

It is to be hoped that this valuable collection of documents will at no distant period be given to the public for the information of those who take an interest in the history of British India, and the guidance of those who may hereafter treat of this subject.

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